DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 378 414 CE 068 115

AUTHOR	Benn, Roseanne, Ed.; Fieldhouse, Roger, Ed.
TITLE	Training and Professional Development in Adult and Continuing Education. Occasional Paper Number 1.
INSTITUTION	Exeter Univ. (England). Centre for Research in Continuing Education.
REPORT NO	ISBN-1-899070-00-1
PUB DATE	94
NOTE	136p.; Papers presented at an international conference on Training and Professional Development in Adult and Continuing Education (Oxford, England, United Kingdom, September 13-15, 1993).
AVAILABLE FROM	Centre for Research in Continuing Education, University of Exeter, Cotley, Streatham Rise, Exeter EX4 4PE, England, United Kingdom (7.50 British pounds plus 1 British pound postage).
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Adult Counseling; Adult Education; *Adult Educators; Community Colleges; Competency Based Teacher Education; Continuing Education; Core Curriculum; Curriculum Development; Distance Education; Educational Change; Educational Development; Foreign Countries; Graduate Study; Lifelong Learning; *Professional Development; *Teacher Education; Two Year Colleges; Undergraduate Study
IDENTIFIERS	Canada; Europe; *Professionalization of Teaching; Tanzania; United Kingdom

ABSTRACT

This publication contains an introduction and the 19 papers presented in workshops at a conference that addressed some issues relating to professionalization and the training and professional development needs in the area of adult education. Papers are as follows: "Training and Professional Development in Adult and Continuing Education" (Benn, Fieldhouse); "Cultural Awareness and Communication: A Perspective on Europe" (Arthur); "An Investigation of Professional Development Needs in Adult Education" (Benn); "The Search for a Core Curriculum in the Training of Senior Adult Education Personnel" (Cohen); "The Professionalization of Continuing Educators in the UK (United Kingdom): An Appropriate Model for the Future?" (Parker, Davies); "In-service Training and Development of Clinical Educators in Orthopaedic Surgery, Sports Medicine, and Veterinary Medicine" (Farmer); "Adult Counselling: A Need, a Challenge, and an Opportunity for Developing a New Discipline" (Friedlander); "A Competency-based Approach to Initial and Continuing Professional Education" (Gonczi); "Theory and Practice in the Curriculum Preparing Educators of Adults" (Henschke); "Developing Professionals for Adult Education in Flanders" (Hinnekint); "Pedagogy, Androgogy, and Professional Education" (Jarvis); "Lifelong Learning--Holy Grail or Poisoned Chalice?" (Jowitt); "Principles behind the Generation of Adult Education in Local Arenas" (Larsson, Thang); "Adult Educators: Issues of Professionalisation" (Papanaoum); "A Conceptual Framework for Developing Adaptive Competency for Professionals" (Paprock); "Instructors-as-Researchers-and-Theorists: Faculty Development in a Community College" (Peters); "Adult Education Studies in Canada: Graduate and Undergraduate Programmes" (Wickett); "Self Reliance and Distance Education--The Case of Teachers in Tanzania" (Wort); "Towards a Comparative Study of Policy and Practice of Training and Development in Western Learning Societies" (Zeldin); and "The New Education of Adult Educators: What, Who, and Why?" (Zukas). (YLB)

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Occasional Paper number 1

TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

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TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
IN
ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

Edited by

Roseanne Benn
and
Roger Fieldhouse

University of Exeter Centre for Research in Continuing Education
Occasional Paper number 1

1994

Published by the Centre for Research in Continuing Education, University of Exeter,
Cotley, Streatham Rise, Exeter EX4 4PE, UK

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Price £7.50 plus £1.00 p&p

ISBN 1 899070 00 1

PREFACE

The University of Exeter Department of Continuing and Adult Education promoted an international conference on Training and Professional Development in Adult and Continuing Education at Wadham College, Oxford on 13-15 September 1993. The conference was aimed at those interested and involved in theoretical and practical aspects of the training and development of workers in adult and continuing education, both full-time and part-time. It was attended by 35 participants from twelve countries (Australia, Belgium, Canada, France, Greece, Israel, Japan, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, UK and USA). Nineteen papers were presented in workshops during the three days, giving rise to a lively and illuminating dialogue. These papers are presented in this Exeter University Centre for Research in Continuing Education Occasional Paper as a contribution to the debate about the training and professionalisation of adult educators

The conference was planned by an organising committee consisting of Roseanne Benn and Roger Fieldhouse from the University of Exeter, Peter Jarvis of the University of Surrey and Gerald Normie.

The organising committee would like to thank Dick Smethurst, Provost of Worcester College, Oxford for his address at the opening plenary session; Greta Tink of the Department of Continuing and Adult Education, Exeter for all the hard work in looking after the pre-conference administrative arrangements; Anna Benn for her help with the conference registration; and the staff of Wadham College for making us so welcome, comfortable and well-fed during our three days at Oxford.

It is hoped to continue and extend the dialogue at a second conference in Canada in 1996

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Training and Professional Development in Adult and Continuing Education

R.Benn and R.Fieldhouse

One of the contributors to this collection of papers (Papanaoum) argues that a democracy needs high quality adult education and for this well-trained professionals are needed. The papers presented at the conference, together with the conference workshops, addressed some of the issues relating to professionalisation and the training and professional development needs in the field of adult education. The papers range over many diverse topics and perspectives. In this introduction we consider them under three headings:

Professionalisation
The nature of provision
The effect of policy on practice

Professionalisation

In his paper, Cohen argues that on the one hand adult education is an emerging profession, aspiring to professional status and recognition, but at the same time it displays many of the attributes of a movement and it is very reluctant to give up the spontaneity, informality and flexibility that have historically characterised its developments. He also asserts that adult education is an academic discipline and a field of research, both scholarly and applied. Discussion around these issues underlie all the papers.

One of the fundamental problems facing professionalisation in adult education is that, although there is a growing number of adult educators, they are not necessarily recognised as such either by themselves or others (Hinnekint). They do not define themselves as adult educators (Cohen, Papanaoum). Adult educators are often highly trained and well qualified in **another** discipline, but not in adult education. Indeed they are often appointed as adult educators on the basis of that qualification in another discipline. They may have experience of, and a commitment to, adult education but often not a specific training in the field. Many adult educators' practice is improvisation based on interest, commitment and experience, but not training. Where qualifications for adult education do exist, they are seen primarily as a matter of professional competence rather than pedagogical knowledge or training (Hinnekint).

There are also fundamental divisions within the 'profession' between those employed full-time, with a degree of permanence and security, and those employed casually on a part-time basis. Indeed the majority of people who are classified as adult educators undertake the role on a part-time basis only (Papanaoum). Many enter this work almost by accident. They may perceive themselves as professionals in their own discipline, who occasionally work as part-time adult educators. This attitude and the consequent context-bound conception of the aims of adult education may well be due to lack of professional training in adult education.

A profession is sometimes defined as a group of people working within a common field of practice who control entry into that practice. A good profession ensures that this control is based on training requirements which provide both the core knowledge peculiar to the profession (for which clients will consult the profession) and a broader contextual knowledge consisting of a number of operational competencies and illuminating or guiding disciplines (R.Barnett, Improving Higher Education (SRHE, 1992), pp.187-8.).

Paprock and Farmer both emphasise the need for adaptive competence and claim that the ability to anticipate and adapt to change is the mark of a professional, rather than the assimilation or banking of a particular body of knowledge. Similarly, Benn argues that in adult education training, people are looking to acquire skills in self-directed, independent or experiential learning rather than in formal taught courses with their emphasis on the transference of a body of useful knowledge. Peters advances these ideas by advocating training based on reflective practice in the manner popularised by Schon. This is a characteristic of professionalisation also noted by Barnett:

> The skilled professional has at her command a repertoire of strategies and techniques, the capacity to think creatively in context and the abilities to apply formal knowledge, all of which can be combined at will and called upon in order to produce effective action. It is a kind of real-time reflective thinking; not reflection after the event, but reflection during the event. It is reflection as an integral part of the event.

> The skilled professional has, therefore, at her disposal at any one time a range of possible interventions which could be made in the particular situation confronting her. To say this implies two further things. Firstly, the professional is able to create in her imagination different possibilities, without putting them into effect in the real world. Secondly, the professional is able to asses them in her imagination, weighing up alternative courses of action and evaluating them against criteria of different kinds. (Op. cit., p.186.)

A profession will also share a set of values - reflecting Cohen's reference to adult education as a social movement and Papanaoum's claim that it should promote democracy - and incorporate a code of ethics. The latter was discussed at some length in the workshops although appears rarely in the papers, except for Benn's advocacy of certain standards of behaviour and safety. She argues that, in order to fulfil their role with integrity, adult educators need to work within an agreed ethos and set of professional guidelines which it is arguable can only be effectively transmitted by systematic and critical formal education.

The nature of provision

A number of papers examine what constitutes an appropriate teaching and learning approach and a suitable core curriculum for the training of professional adult educators, and various models are outlined (Davies & Parker; Hinnekint; Papanaoum.). Cohen notes the common elements of core curriculum in America in the late 1980s as being programme development, adult learning and development, foundations of adult education, teaching methods and management and administration and shows how they have been adapted to adult education training in Israel. Others suggest important additions to the core curriculum: adult counselling (Friedlander); intercultural adult education (Arthur); and critical theory, women's studies and how to teach non-standard students (Wickett).

Jarvis suggests that we should differentiate between the **initial** training of novice adult educators and the continuing professional development of the profession, and adopts Knowles's four characteristics which differentiate pedagogy from andragogy as a useful device for differentiating the training approaches for novice and experienced adult educators.

Davies and Parker warn against too academic an approach and the lack of consideration of professional issues in many training programmes: an argument repeated in Farmer's plea that training should relate theory to the particular practice of the profession. Both Farmer and Paprock extol the virtues of anomaly-based workshops which investigate specific problematic or puzzling issues of particular concern to the profession. Farmer argues that, as these anomalous areas are ones in which theories and techniques should apply but do not, then anomaly-based workshops can address and chart important but previously uncharted areas relative to a field of study.

When considering the training needs of all professional groups, Farmer advocates a team approach where the training is aimed at a specialist professional group - the team comprising a mixture of adult educators and specialists drawn from that particular professional group. He also stresses the importance of using professional training to make explicit that which is normally left tacit - thereby transcending "the cult of silence" of the professions.

Henschke reminds us that the approach adopted in courses for adult educators should reflect the theory propounded ie making the medium and message coincide. He illustrates this by recalling a conference presentation (not this conference!) entitled 'The Forty-Seven Principles of Adult Learning' where the presenter violated every one of them. Arthur similarly argues that adult education training should be based on dialogue and a mutual partnership between equals, with learning taking place one from another. If this basic rule that practice should reflect and reinforce theory is ignored, then the result may be that the course will not be regarded as worth while by potential students (Benn).

The effect of policy on practice

Several papers examine how wider social policies or the political or ideological context within which the training takes place inevitably influence the nature of that training.

Zeldin acknowledges the close links between social policies and training but sees an inherent moral and political difficulty in the relationship: which drives and which is driven? He identifies an inevitable clash between political forces and professional values and asks to what extent do we as adult educators accept aims and goals that we may believe are inimical to the interests of our students, contradict professional beliefs and established practices, or do not contribute to the collective good of the whole of society.

Gonczi, Jowitt and Zukas all identify the influence of contemporary economic policies on the nature of adult education and therefore the kind of training required by adult educators. In the Australian context, Gonczi acknowledges that the demand for standards and competencies has influenced the content of adult education and argues that competency based approaches have potential for a significant improvement in all initial and continuing professional education. Jowitt and Zukas are less persuaded, arguing that the requirements of employment training and the emphasis on the acquisition of specific competencies have driven adult education in a fixed direction and resulted in a more narrowly-focussed provision. The training of adult educators inevitably reflects this policy. Zukas fears that current and future developments will concentrate on a view of education that is narrow and limiting, defining teaching as the provision of learning opportunities rather than a more dynamic and interactive process, and ignoring a wider understanding of what it means to be a teacher. Jowitt sees the education reinforcing class distinctions and the cultural constraints which inhibit the development of an all embracing educational culture and is concerned that recent initiatives are doing nothing substantive to change this situation.

Davies and Parker likewise reflect on the influence of the State on the curriculum of continuing education training courses and note that, whilst not wishing to see a profession which is exclusive and powerful, neither do they wish to see the structure, content and assessment of the curriculum dictated by the State. They argue that adult educators must review the process of professionalisation and embed it on firm academic and professional foundations and seize the initiative in the political debate.

Wort describes a particular instance of policy imperatives influencing the nature of professional training, in this case the training of teachers in Tanzania. The need to improve the competence of 70,000 primary school teachers, many of them living in educationally isolated areas scattered throughout the country, resulted in professional training which emphasised self reliance and independent study by distance education.

Conclusion

The Conference raised fundamental issues concerning training and professional development in adult and continuing education, including the need for and the process of professionalisation and the requirement for an underpinning Code of Ethics. It was also a most convivial and enjoyable event. We all agreed to continue the discussion in Canada in 1996

Cultural Awareness and Communication: A Perspective on Europe

Lore Arthur, **Goldsmiths' College, London, UK**

Adult educators and trainers are, predictably, a heterogenous lot. Not only do they have different needs and expectations with regard to their own professional development, they also come from a variety of ethnic and cultural backgrounds. In the spirit of adult education all have a significant contribution to make in the learning/teaching situation. Yet in the context of British community adult education 'intercultural' adult education rarely ventures outside its confines of `education for the disadvantaged'. Practical and scholarly aspects of intercultural communication, the role of language and modes of education with some kind of international dimension are rarely an intergral part of teacher training or general staff development.

Conceptually, multi-, cross- or intercultural education have served as umbrella terms for a variety of policies and practices. These terms, therefore, overlap and lack clarity and precision. Friedenthal-Haase (1991:37) refers to the distinction made in English between whether the term refers to the relationship between different cultures - thereby stressing the first part of the word in 'inter-cultural'-, or whether, in the sense of 'cross-cultural', the relationship envisaged is one where cultures are viewed as opposites.

In the spheres of practical adult education politics and professional development, however, the term multicultural adult education has since the early 1980s concentrated on issues around anti-discriminatory practices, racial awareness training

"In the spirit of equal opportunities in and outside the curriculum. In that sense multi-rather than intercultural adult education has been the focus of much practical and theoretical work undertaken in Britain over recent years. One could go further and say that `in Britain intercultural education has received a massive setback, partly because of the way in which the political right has trampled on these issues, but also because they were aided and abetted by the rhetoric of anti-racists and multi-culturalists who asserted political purity, without shifting educational achievements" (Gundra: 1993:19).

Paradoxically, the need for better cultural understanding is being promoted from, in this instance, the European Community - and for very different reasons. The Maastricht Treaty, for example, will make the teaching of culture an important educational element across all member states. Article 128 (European Commission: 1992:49) stipulates that any action by the community shall be aimed at the `improvement of knowledge and dissemination of the culture and history of the European people'. Other directives are already in place such as the 1988 Resolution on Enhancing the European dimension in Education (European Commission: 1988:C177/5). Indeed, the development of a European dimension in education was one of the first to be decided and is one of the most persistent.

In British practice, however, many European interactions are market-led in the spirit of enterprise and competition rather than for any intrinsic commitment to the European ideal itself. There is, of course, an ever increasing number of international/European conferences to attend and take part in. Professional partnerships with continental counterparts seem, on the surface at least, attractive and worthwhile. They also necessitate a minimum of pragmatic knowledge about the respective country and the European Community itself. Vocational education, both initial and continuing education, parity of qualifications as well as the various Community action programmes demand clarification of a whole range of Europe-related issues.

Yet the European dimension can also raise tensions. After all, in practice this means that there is yet something else that I, as a professional person, ought to know about, ought to get involved in, ought to be able to teach about - just as I ought to speak fluent French, German or Spanish and I do not. The words of Jerome Monod, Chairman of La Lyonnaise des Eaux-Dumez must seem daunting, indeed:

" The knowledge not only of foreign languages but also of the culture of different European countries, the study of Japanese and American civilisation and of the Arab World, in short the knowledge of others, is an absolute must" (Guardian 17/2/93).

Education for what purpose?

There are, of course other perspectives to be considered. These relate not only to operative extrinsic values but also to normative intrinsic ones; not only to pragmatic tolerance in the context of work but also to deeper understanding as an activity in itself. Afterall, the European integration in social, economic and political terms is much more advanced than most people understand. Inevitably, there is a time lag between policies generated at political level and consciousness of their practical outcomes among the public at large.

Nationally, and very much for functional reasons, the teaching of foreign languages has, after years of neglect, achieved a significant boost in this country, particularly in the context of industry and commerce and higher education where many young people take the European dimension for granted. They see it as a place of future employment and travel though, admittedly, they may not know much about Europe itself (Rigby, Burgess, 1992:8).
However, how many adults in this country would know that the ECU was introduced in 1979 after years of negotiation or understand the difference between the various Treaties? Young children,too, claim to be remarkably ignorant according to a recent survey where 64% of the 200 12-year old interviewed claim to have never heard of the European Community (Independent 2/7/93). Even 60% of Germans, supposedly ardent Europeans, consider themselves to be poorly informed about the European Community and claim to feel generally tired of the whole topic (Schmuck 1993:36).

Juxtaposed, one has to remember that the European Community is anything but a homogenous entity. The complexities with regard to its allochthonous and autochnonous languages mirrors its pluralistic nature. There are currently 15 state-supported languages and 35 minority languages in addition to the numerous spoken by migrants and other settlers. Furthermore, it is likely that by the turn of the century the European Comunity will consist of 23 member states. In addition, in Britain many black and ethnic communities fear that the Common Market is only concerned with being open for business and hostile to all but white European citizens. Concerns about a possible `fortress Europe' have been voiced not only in this country but on the Continent, too. Questions concerning a `European culture' and `European identity' would seem unanswerable when seen in this light.

Questions, however, do need to be asked. Are we to train/educate adult educators so that they should know more about Europe, that is, about the various EC countries as well as functions and rights of the Brussel bureaucracy? Alternatively, are we, provided we attempt to do this in the first place, educating and training others to be Europeans, that is preparing `hearts and minds' for a new Europe (Ryba: 1992:15)?

Leaving Europe aside, are we as educators and trainers not also concerned with the changing of attitudes towards `others' as well as the acquisition of knowledge? Is cultural training not more than a speculative nicety? Is it not also a moral task of adult education? If so, how do we go about it?

Cultural training - a functional task

None of the questions can be answered without clarification of learning needs and desired learning outcomes of all those involved. These, in their turn, affect the WHAT, WHERE and HOW; in other words the learning content, where and under what circumstances it takes place and how learning should be initiated, that is its methodology. It may perhaps be helpful to clarify the for WHOM before other issues can be examined. Participants can be grouped in the following way:

Intercultural training/education for -

- those travelling/working abroad
- those working with cultural minorities at home
- self-development in cooperation with others

Difficulties already occur with the WHAT. Concepts of 'culture' in anthropology are notoriously complex. They remain elusive for practical purposes. Suffice to say, that 'culture' is an omnibus term crossing many disciplines though generally it involves knowledge, ideas and artefacts. As such it may be observable (a behaviourist definition) or related to organised and shared interpretation, that is how individuals make sense of their environment and cultural identity (cognitive definition).
Goodenough's definition of culture is widely cited in this context. He states, "A society's culture consists of whatever it is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members. Culture is not a natural phenomenon; it does not consist of things, people's behaviour or emotions. It is the form of

things people have in their minds, their models of perceiving, relating and otherwise interpreting them" (in Hymes 1964:36).

Others see 'culture' as a process of interpretation of symbols and meanings and the interrelationship between meaning, experience and reality (a symbolic definition). In this instance 'culture' is a dynamic process, ongoing, giving rise to symbols which may be viewed historically. Past experience influences meaning, which in turn affects future experience, which in turn affects subsequent meaning, and so on. Interpretation of meaning, however, can remain an isolated process if not shared and enriched by others.

Much more problematic, however, are questions in relation to the pedagogy of 'culture'. Can one teach 'culture'? Juxtaposed, can one teach about other cultures without having the experience of other cultures? Can one, even should one, develop empathy in the psychologistic sense in learners?

In the reality in the classroom, and in the absense of clearly defined theoretical framework, pragmatism prevails. While knowing about others initself does not do justice to the topic in hand, in practice it will determine what is practiced and how it is practiced in the learning situation (Nemetz Robinson,1983:11). Within initial education `culture', if it is taught at all, remains in narrow subject boundaries such as history, geography or foreign languages. In applied linguistics the role of 'culture' in relation to the teaching of foreign languages, is a area of research and scholarly discussion but without the serious didactical consideration it deserves and little impact in the classroom. The medium of the foreign language itself and the social context in which it operates is generally considered to suffice. Cultural background studies rarely venture beyond the predictable and are never seen in the context of multicultural education in Britain (Byram: 1989:89).

Cross-cultural education and training can, however, take on many different mantles. Much depends on the needs, experience of learners sharing that process. Cultural training, or acculturisation, often associated with the Diplomatic Service, has recently taken on new guises in the area of business and commerce, particularly in the context of the Single European Market. Here the emphasis is on knowledge acquisition and understanding of social/work-related behaviour and business etiquette, communication processes, delegation of power, roles of authority and leadership styles characteristic to a cultural grouping. Some countries have a preferance for team work and emphasise interpersonal relationships than others, for example, which in turn will influence cultural perception and appropriate training.

It is useful to know, even for adult educators when dealing with counterparts from other countries, how organisations are structured, what kind of decision and communication processes underline various actions and how one would most effectively negotiate and what kind of rituals to observe. In some countries, for example, studies and reports by experts are a significant element in the decision-making process while oral presentations and discussions for disseminating information or gathering input for decisions is considered to be an Anglo-Saxon innovation.

The teaching of cross-cultural communication in the context of professional development takes on different dimensions with regard to ethnic communities in Britain. This kind of very specific training often involves areas of public services, and, indeed, many professional trainers and educators of adults in a work-related context. Inter-or cross cultural communication studies used as a basis for this kind of training examine different ways of speaking, that is high or low pitch, stress and emphasis in a sentence, interruptions, apologetic/polite/ or repetitive uses common to the other language and culture which can cause unintended confusion and possible breakdown in communication. Facial expressions, body language, a different sense of space and time, sounds and other paralinguistic features are part of the same process.

The study of intercultural communication and discourse analysis has also a part to play in education where little is done to help teachers understand communication pattern from students whose first language is not English and who may have different approaches to learning and academic study. In English-speaking conventions, for example, the writing of an academic essay requires linearity of structure and relevance to the topic in hand rather than descriptive exposure of knowledge, which is the common criterion in many other cultures (Clyne in Smith 1987:73).
Different learning styles and expectations of the teacher as well as and belief systems require alternate didactic considerations and communication strategies.

All of these examples, however, present potentially a deficit model of intercultural relationships. Teaching/training strategies seemingly rely on integration of another 'culture' into the dominant one; a kind of colonisation where the coloniser remains monocultural and monolingual and where deep-level learning of the other culture or evaluation of one's own are unintentional by-products rather then central to the process itself.

Alternatively, cross-cultural domination expressed through language can serve as a means of both exclusion and inclusion and therefore reflect one's own bias in a given situation. As Stubbs (1983:8) points out, 'there is no use of language which is not embedded in its own culture; on the other hand, there are no large scale relationships between language and society, which are not realized, at least partly, through verbal interaction'. Part of culture is conversational competence, part of the teaching/ learning process the realisation of its socio-cultural appropriacy. Developing linguistic competence is, in the main, perceived as a functional rather than a reflective task in its conceptualisation and expectation of learning outcomes. Developing reflective dialogue aimed understanding, on the other, requires a different set of strategies.

Reflection and dialogue

The raising of cultural awareness, of potential significance in the context of work, however, not solely bound to an institutional setting. Adult learners and teachers of adults in multicultural Britain experience a powerful blend of other cultures in and outside the classroom situation, at home and abroad. Furthermore, adult educators may be bi- or multicultural, have lived abroad and shared other cultural communities in addition to their own. Knowing about others and the changing of attitudes, however, are two somewhat separate processes. Entering another cultural community, can both broaden the mind and, at the same time, reinforce parochial, if not nationalistic attitudes. The tendency to view 'others' with a degree of curiosity, of 'you there - we over here', may persist without challenge to cultural prejudices. Study trips abroad, a traditional form of intercultural education, can, therefore, be of limited value. Intercultural adult education as a tool for personal development, may need different, albeit more formalised strategies and active curriculum development.

Adult education in Britain, however, faced with the grid of Mulloch, is currently pre-occupied with a whole range of different priorities. A functional, goal-orientated approach in the context of tight fiscal policies, expressed in the language of management allows little space for comparative dialogue and reflection. Furthermore, any exercise in international comparative adult education requires elements of curiosity, a desire to understand and hence full cooperation of all its participants if it is not to be a meaningless venture.

Kolb's learning cycle comes to mind. Kolb (1984), however, asks learners to take matters beyond 'experiences' and the anectodal, that is to critical reflection, abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation, all of which require language as a tool of transmission. Faundez, inspired by Freire, sees the action of knowing, the process of learning as a shared activity. In his discussion he focuses on the use of dialogue as an effective learning device. 'The truth becomes manifest through dialogue, through exchange of our particular insights and our different experiences' (Faundez in Leirman and Kulich, 1987:165). He sees developing knowledge essentially as a social process which requires not only understanding but also knowing how to learn from one another. Learning from one another requires mutual partnerships between equals. Seen in this light intercultural adult education has a great deal to offer.

Intercultural adult education, however, can both be formalised, and even accredited learning for extrinsic purposes and, at the same time, invite comparative analysis, dialogue, reflection and deep-level understanding not only about other cultures but also about one's own. Furthermore, it permeates many subject areas which require cross-curicular responses. Indeed, intercultural adult education could not be sustained without those. There, then, exists an intrinsic interrelationship between

- Intercultural adult education a subject in its own right
- The raising of cultural awareness across the curriculum
- Individual/collective intercultural experience
- Intercultural communication between equal partners

Within the remits of the European Community, particularly as stated in the Maastricht Treaty, the raising of cultural awareness has become an explicit formal requirement. Indeed, knowing about Europe, that is knowing about other European countries as well as the functions and purposes of the European Community itself, seems both necessary and desirable. As individuals we may identify with being European or not. We can choose to interpret and develop intercultural awareness in many different ways. These seem to me legitimate and worthwhile tasks, even if they raise many more questions than can possibly be answered.

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An Investigation of Professional Development Needs in Adult Education

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This paper reports on an investigation into the background of adult educators working in just one area of adult education that of Access to Higher Education provision, an identification of their learning needs, and how these needs were, or are, being met. Of particular interest is whether these educators utilised the formal education system to gain the required new skills, knowledge and/or qualifications or whether they used more informal methods.

The aim of the work was to understand more clearly how people reacted when placed in a new learning situation of adult education provision. The three theoretical approaches given above were used to give a framework for the research. It became clear that informal learning methods were the most extensively used and the paper discusses the benefits and limitations of such an approach and attempts to establish whether the present provision for adult educators is appropriate and helpful for people in the new British adult education world.

Introduction

Adult education in Britain is undergoing fundamental changes. It has always been a difficult area of work to classify with adult educators teaching a range of subjects in different circumstances to a wide range of students. As Steele suggests (1993: 35), we promiscuously range over pedagogical, historical, political, psychological and practical issues. However adult education in Britain has traditionally been pluralist, with major strands provided by the local authorities, the voluntary organisations and the universities. This tradition of 'night school', of adult education providing a wide range of non-vocational, vocational and recreational courses at low cost in local centres is disappearing to be replaced by 'continuing education' with its more utilitarian connotations. The new formation is likely to be driven by ideological forces, through funding mechanisms, into mainstream Higher Education and mainstream Further Education. This raises the long term question of whether, in this new scenario, there will be a place for specialist adult educators at all. In the short term, this new adult or continuing education is producing a new breed of adult educators with different roles and hence different learning needs. This has implications for the training of adult educators.

This paper attempts to contribute to the discussions of educators of adult educators concerning the appropriateness and validity of current provision. It questions whether adult educators, who are of necessity adult learners themselves, use the formal education system to meet their learning needs or whether they develop alternative strategies. First however theories of adult learning and participation are reviewed to give a framework for the results of an empirical study.

Self-directed independent learning

As suggested by Candy (1981: 63), if there is any one feature which is consistently held up as the identifying characteristic of adult education, it is the ability, and indeed the propensity, of adult learners to be self-directed: to 'take the initiative, with or without the help of others in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material sources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes.'(Knowles 1975 18). Knowles also notes (1972) that 'as an individual matures he accumulates an expanding reservoir of experience that causes him to become an increasingly rich resource for learning, and at the same time provides him with a broadening base to which to relate new learnings (sic)'. These arguments are used by Knowles and others to decrease the emphasis in adult education on the transmittal techniques of traditional teaching (pedagogy) to an increased emphasis on experiential techniques (andragogy). It would seem as consistent to conclude that many adults, and particularly those with an ease and familiarity with the educational system and its vast resources, would by-pass the formal educational system and undertake self-directed, independent study. This is supported by Tough's work (1971 1) which not only showed the considerable amounts of self-directed study undertaken (a median of eight learning projects a year with 700 hours spent a year on learning projects being common) but also that much of this takes place outside the formal education system.

So it might be anticipated that when confronted with a new learning situation, adult educators might well tackle their learning outside the formal system. It is also likely that they would spend considerable time and effort obtaining any required new skills and/or knowledge. There are however well rehearsed arguments (see Collins 1991, Fieldhouse 1993, Brookfield 1989: 161) that self-directed learning whether on a taught course or in independent study has major limitations. This approach can be too comfortable, can allow existing assumptions and prejudices to go unchallenged and leave untouched aspects of the student's values and actions that they would prefer not to examine. It can also be argued that a programme of self-directed independent study, while meeting the individual's perceived needs, may preclude the consideration of critical social, cultural and political influences and therefore excludes social benefit and the collective good from any assessment of value (Fieldhouse 1993: 242). This mode of study may lack objectivity, allowing the adult educator's practice to remain subjective and normative. As Collins argues (1991 xi), in the absence of a sustained social critique the adult educator becomes vulnerable to the dominant ideologies.

Experiential learning

In considering whether these educators would enter the formal system to satisfy their learning needs in this new situation, experiential learning models were also examined. Jarvis (1993) outlined a model which seems useful in the present work.

```
person-----situation/experience --------------- the person reinforced
      /         \                                but relatively unchanged
     /           \
    /             \
practice           discussion---------memorization
experimentation      /
                    /
        \          /
        evaluation
              \
               \
                reasoning and
                  reflection
                       \
                        \
                         the person changed and
                         more experienced
```

Jarvis sees the learning process as being one of three modes

non-learning	presumption non-consideration rejection
non-reflective learning	preconscious learning skills learning memorization
reflective learning	contemplation reflective skills learning experimental learning

When evaluating the learning processes of the sample group and in particular when comparing formal and informal learning, it was decided to use this model to assess the quality of the learning that had occurred.

The motivation-barriers paradigm

In the investigation as to whether and why educators used formal or informal routes, it was decided to use Cross' motivation-barrier paradigm (1981 124-131). She argues that there are four considerations that effect participation in formal education systems whether: the student has a positive attitude to formal learning; the outcome is of value; the individual considers it the most effective way of achieving the outcome; and the availability (in terms of distance or scheduling) of suitable courses. In a group of adult educators, positive attitudes to learning and successful performance would not be expected to be a substantive problem, but the last three could be important considerations.

Ast extensively used and the paper discusses the benefits and limitations of such an approach and attempts to establish whether the present provision for adult educators is appropriate and helpful for people in this new area of work.

Background - Access to Higher Education

The term Access to Higher Education is now used widely in Britain to describe the process of giving adults opportunities to move along educational routes and to find ways back into education.

In August 1978, the Department of Education and Science invited seven local authorities including the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA) to establish Access courses (special pilot courses for entry to higher education) with a view to increasing the opportunities for members of ethnic minorities to enter higher education. An important aim of this provision was to bring black people into high profile professions (teachers, social workers, lawyers etc) within inner cities. Courses targeted women, ethnic minorities, unemployed and the working class.

Access to Higher Education courses are aimed at mature, non-traditional potential students who have no formal qualifications. Access courses thus have a special role in widening participation in higher education, not just increasing the number admitted.They prepare people in one year part-time or full-time study for entry to Higher Education.

The growth in Access courses, defined as a recognised route into higher education for mainly mature entrants who hold neither traditional sixth form nor vocational qualifications, has been rapid. There were six courses in 1979, 130 in 1984 and over 1000 in 1992 (Jones 1992: 17). There are of the order of 30,000 Access students in Britain today and this rapid expansion shows no sign of slowing down. This has created a need for a new form of adult teaching and raises the question of how the teachers have been prepared for this.

Methodology

This survey is based on seventeen semi-structured interviews of half to one hour duration. All the interviewees are involved in Access course teaching, development and/or organisation. All are Access 'shapers' to varying extents, ie have influenced their course, regional development and/or the national scene. Four are from higher education, five from further education, five from community (or adult) education and three are involved in the national Access Course validation process as regional Access Federation Development Officers. The geographical area covered is Scotland, and the North, the Midlands, and the South-West of England. Interviewees were told the purpose of the research, then asked for educational background; work, educational and Access experience; whether Access was a significant part of their career/work and whether Access work was different from their previous work and if so how and what preparation they had been given. They were then asked about their career structure and whether Access and/or qualifications were integral to their advancement. There was then a discussion of their learning needs for Access, what training they felt they had needed and whether this had been available, and what other forms of learning they had used. They were then given the opportunity to make any general comments. This gave a time for reflection and critical evaluation which was used by all interviewees.

The sample group

As is so common with adult educators in Britain, this group was very diverse in background. There were eleven women and six men. Although gender differences were not sought, they arose naturally and will be discussed later. About half were in the 35-45 age bracket, the rest were 45-55. The educational background varied with PhDs, Masters, BAs, BScs, BEds, PGCEs and Certificates in Education. Only four had formal qualifications to teach 5-18 year olds. Three had qualifications in adult education, eleven had no such qualification, and three are currently attending credit-rated course inthis area. Two have been involved in Access work for two or less years, nine for three to five years and seven for six or more years. All but two saw Access as a significant part of their career or work. Those two, both of whom have high level responsibilities in their institutions, saw Access as only a small part of their work load but nevertheless of considerable importance to them personally. It was very clear that Access tutors were deeply committed to this part of their work, often commenting on the substantial difference between hours allocated and those actually spent. Two were involved only in teaching, five in administration and development and ten both.

Identified learning needs

Establishing the learning needs of the group was an interesting process. The group consisted of people with very diverse backgrounds in terms of experiences, skills and knowledge and this was reflected in their perceived learning needs. Most tutors felt that at least some aspects of Access work was different from their past work. Areas identified can be loosely classified as curriculum; assessment; and administration and development.

- **Curriculum**

Some had never worked with adults or adult returners before and Access raised for them fundamental pedagogic issues. Those of the group whose previous experience was in A level teaching, which is content-driven, emphasised the student- and skills-based nature of Access work and the problems of mixed ability teaching. Those who entered Access from the liberal adult education tradition were more likely to find Access surrounded by bureaucracy, constrained by syllabuses and time, and subject to the considerable pressures of university entrance. Almost all noted the considerable personal support required by Access students and hence identified needs in the area of counselling, educational guidance and inter-personal skills. The most frequent comment was that Access is more demanding than any other work but is also more rewarding.

- **Assessment**

The area of assessment was of considerable concern. The tradition of non-accredited liberal adult education in Britain has led to a breed of adult educators with a background in student self-assessment, no or little experience of formal assessment and for many no sympathy with the concept. For those from further education with considerable A level experience, final assessment had been done by the Examination Boards and was norm-referenced. The Access process of assessment, set and marked by tutors often with unseen examinations and operating within an External Examiner system, was new and often a shock to many tutors.

- **Management**

The final area of learning identified by many was in development, administration and management. Many people in Access have had to develop Access courses from scratch and have then taken on the Course Director role. Access has its own National Validation Framework within which all courses must operate. This framework has gradually evolved and Access 'shapers' have needed to keep up to date with developments and ensure that their courses complied with the quite complex initial and ongoing validation procedures. Many tutors themselves became involved with the regional validation process which is built on a system of peer review. Some are also involved with national validation developments and reviews. The National Framework requires extensive documentation and statistics and this, together with university entrance procedures and normal course administration, creates a heavy administrative load particularly for those not trained in this field.

The consensus was that Access work was different in some but not all ways from previous work and most had felt the need for new skills and the brushing up of old ones. When asked whether preparation or training had been provided by their institution for this work, the response was a resounding no. They learnt 'on the job', by 'trial and error', 'on the hoof','it was a baptism of fire'. One appointed as the Development Officer for a regional Access Validation Agency was 'given the file, did not know the background to Access, did not understand the politics of Access and did not understand the internal politics of Access recognition'.

Relating theory to practice

Self-directed independent learning:
So far we have established that this committed group of Access tutors came from wide variety of backgrounds and almost all identified learning needs for their Access work which were not met by their various institutions. As has already been noted, only three of the group had qualifications in adult education and three are currently attending credit-rated courses. Quite clearly most are not meeting their learning needs through formal education and some of the reasons for this will be discussed later. As anticipated in our earlier discussion, the group extensively used self-directed independent learning. An impressive array of informal methods was used

including thinking; transferable skills from previous experiences; books and journals; Open University materials; discussions with colleagues; conferences; workshops and training days over a wide range of topics including group dynamics, counselling and assessment; networking with a variety of other groups such as educational guidance workers; and linking into the institution's facilities such as the validation process. Networking by attendance at local Access Tutor Forum was mentioned as valuable by some. But one of the most interesting informal methods mentioned by a substantial number of the group was the learning that occurred through participation in the Access National Validation Framework. Local Access Validation Agencies (AVA) organise staff development events in topics such as external examining; moderation; assessment; and validation and these were considered invaluable. But even more developmental than these was seen to be the actual involvement in the validation process. As one tutor remarked 'I learnt from all the AVA's events but particularly from being the chair of two validation panels and consequently writing the validation reports'. So considerable learning was experiential gained by being a moderator, external examiner or on the quality assurance sub-committee of the AVA. Then again networking at a national level with other AVAs was cited as a major learning experience.

Experiential learning

Jarvis' experiential learning model described earlier does seem to reflect the learning cycle of many of the group. There is little doubt that the Access experience has for most of the tutors been a formative one with all making a strong assertion that they are changed and more experienced as a result. The responses laid major emphasis on discussion and practice/experimentation. This small survey would indicate that the stage of discussion could be amended to discussion/networking as networking played a substantial role in the learning process. The comments of a few of the tutors would also indicate that, for them at least, reflective learning involves at some point turning their thoughts into written form. It seems clear by the thoughtful, reflective responses that the mode of learning was, in Jarvis' terminology, true reflective learning.

Motivation-barrier paradigm

The group as a whole showed high quality learning experiences through informal, self-directed, experiential learning but, though some were content with this process, many identified problems. Why then have so few tried to enhance their learning experiences by adding a formal, credit-rated course to their range of learning techniques? As stated earlier, Cross' motivation-barrier paradigm was employed to help unravel the answer. To recap, she argues that there are four considerations that effect participation in formal education systems whether: the student has a positive attitude to formal learning; the outcome is of value; the individual considers it the most effective way of achieving the outcome; and the availability (in terms of distance or scheduling) of suitable courses.

As anticipated, in the sample group successful academic performance was never raised as a problem. The second and third considerations gave a mixed picture for the group.The desired learning outcomes of the group could be classified as one or more of the following: career advancement, improved job performance, and enlightenment.

- **Career advancement**

Before examining the issue of whether learning , formal or informal, makes promotion more likely, it is crucial to understand that nine of the group did not see themselves as on a developing career path. Of this subgroup, the one male had reached the top of his ladder, the rest were women. From this small sample of Access tutors, a very different picture emerged between men and women. The men quite clearly saw themselves as progressing with a sense for each one of an underlying pattern.The women made comments on their career progression reflected in the following. 'Haphazard.I look for interesting jobs, there are not a lot of options'. 'I have no clear plan, my plan is to do an interesting job'. 'With a career break behind you, there are limited opportunities'. The pattern of limited opportunities due to career break and the overriding consideration being an interesting job is echoed in about half the responses. The remaining women seem more to hope they are on a career path than to actually be on one. Therefore, for a majority of this group, career advancement was not a motivating factor. Of the whole group, just six felt that a formal qualification would increase the chance of promotion, 'qualifications are the currency of senior management';'qualifications are needed for job progression in this new qualification-orientated world'; I would need qualifications to move into the university system'; 'qualifications might help to get promotion but not to do the job better'. Interestingly several of the group felt that their institutional culture recognised achievement rather than qualification; 'Access is now mainstream and growing rapidly, experience in this area is seen as valuable'; 'I don't need bits of paper, I need experience'; 'Access has made me *the* adult expert'; 'Access knowledge is of great importance in further education, it is at the centre of adult education thinking'; 'for progression, qualifications are not crucial, practical experience and approach is what is valued'. So the majority of the group did not see the formal system as a route to promotion.

- **Job performance**

Most of the group seemed uncertain whether attendance on the formal route of credit-rated courses would improve their job performance. One who had completed a BPhil in the Theories and Practice of Adult Teaching and Learning commented that this formal route had been very influential in heightening her interest in adult learning. The course had been 'crucial and invaluable' and had, importantly, utilised her informal learning. Others, both those on courses and those not, perceived that the curriculum of many courses available were not geared to their needs and were therefore not useful in the day-to-day operation of their Access work. The overall sense of the replies in this area, was that individuals would study formally to improve job performance but that existing courses were not appropriate for their needs.

- **Enlightenment**

There was a small subgroup whose replies strongly echoed the criticisms of self-directed independent learning outlined earlier. One emphasised the discontinuity between formal and informal learning. He strongly argued that 'the process of reflection forces one to answer questions one might choose to avoid' and that the only way to ensure this process, was through lengthy pieces of writing. He therefore argued for formal assessment of written work but only if content was relevant. Another who had gained considerable knowledge experientially through the validation process commented that 'this was not in depth and a deeper insight is needed. This process of learning tends to be *ad hoc* and this leaves gaps. It is re-active rather than pro-active'. A third commented that 'there is more to Access than planning and validation. What is needed is reflective practitioners. Formal study makes you think more critically about what you are doing'.

A small number of the group stated very clearly that they would look to a formal course for 'self-actualisation' or 'personal development' but not for promotion or day-to-day job improvement.

Cross argues that participation in formal education may be blocked if there are no available courses due to distance or scheduling. These and other practical barriers did apply to the group. One woman had started on an Open University MEd but had had to withdraw under family and work pressures. Others cited financial and geographical reasons as major barriers. However the most common and strongly expressed criticism was the lack of *suitable* provision. The City and Guilds 730 is widely available but is at too low a level for this group. At post-graduate or post-experience level there was a strong feeling from the majority that available courses did not answer their needs. The issue here is not the actual curriculum or structure of courses but these tutors' perception of them. This critical group included those at present enrolled on courses. The small group of science tutors felt strongly that there was *no* provision suitable at any level for them. There is an overwhelming feeling that curricula are too prescribed and not sufficiently responsive to individual need. Even modular courses were criticized for lack of *appropriate* choice. One tutor commented that at the cutting edge of developments, the formal system will never be appropriate and only journals and conferences will give the up-to-date picture. However most were not looking to the formal system for content but for reflection, philosophy and overview. Some specific requirements were raised including educational guidance and management but primarily this group required more supported independent study modules set in the context of a taught theoretical framework.

Conclusion

The sample in this study is small but the above analysis is useful for providing hypotheses for future research and may indicate trends. Several crucial points arise from this work. Firstly these adult educators are not being systematically trained. However they do identify learning needs in working in this new area of adult education. The majority had satisfied these needs, at least initially, by a process of self-directed independent learning with networking playing a crucial role. It would seem clear from their thoughtful interviews that this experiential learning was reflective and of high quality. The motivation for the informal approach was twofold: basic survival and a real interest in this area of work. Some also saw promotion as an outcome of their experience in Access. For those participating or thinking of participating in formal learning, motivation included career progression, job enhancement and self-development. By no means all of the group saw formal learning as contributing to all or even some of these outcomes. So some were not participating in formal learning because for them it seem to serve no purpose. Some were barred by practical problems of finance, time and geography. But there were some who perceived limitations to self-directed independent study and who wished to gain a more critical understanding of their work through a formal route. These tutors raised serious criticisms of the suitability of available courses particularly with reference to the discontinuity between informal and formal learning and the lack of relevance of curricula and teaching approaches to their perceived needs. These criticisms must stem from one of three causes: lack of information about what is required on the part of programme planners; lack of information about what is on offer on the part of the tutors; or lack of responsiveness on the part of the providers. The first two can be overcome by improved communication and publicity. If the cause is the third, then the irony of this will not be lost on the educators of adult educators.

Finally,this research raises crucial issues of 'professionalism'. Educators of adult educators have been grappling for many years with the problem of providing a programme of study that meets the learning needs of a very diverse group of people with very diverse learning needs and have themselves shown real ambivalence as to whether systematic, formalised training is appropriate in an area of work which many see more as a 'movement' than a profession. However if our rhetoric is true and adult education changes lives and it most certainly does in Access, then the public should be able to expect certain standards of behavior and safety. In order to fulfil their role with integrity, adult educators need to work within an agreed ethos and set of professional guidelines. It is arguable that this framework of safety can only be effectively transmitted to all members of the profession by systematic and critical formal education which implies that all practitioners should themselves participate in an agreed amount of continuing education.

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The Search for a Core Curriculum in the Training of Senior Adult Education Personnel

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I would like to concern myself in this article with the question of training senior personnel in adult education. It is common knowledge that the vast majority of people working in adult education do so on a part-time basis, as teachers, tutors, instructors or group leaders. Their expertise is in some field of instruction or in some occupation, and they undertake to teach adults in addition to their major employment elsewhere. The type of training they need in order to make them effective teachers of adults does not concern us here, though there exists a not inconsiderable literature on this subject. (See for example Graham et al 1982).

The question under discussion here relates to the training of persons whose primary function is in adult education and who devote themselves full-time to this responsibility. In most cases these are people who are concerned not only with teaching adults, but also, or foremost, with planning, administering, supervising and evaluating adult education activities and programmes. Compared to the army of teachers of adults, this senior level of adult educators is not a very large group, although their number has been increasing over the last forty or fifty years. It is for this group that advanced level training programmes - known in the U.S. and Canada as graduate level and in the U.K. as post-graduate level - were first developed sixty years ago and have since been taken up by several scores of universities in the U.S. and Canada, the United Kingdom and several European countries. There are many problems and question marks regarding the training of this level of senior adult edcuation personnel and I shall try to deal with the major ones in the course of this paper.

The first difficulty encountered in trying to develop a training programme for senior adult educators stems from the very natureof the field of adult education itself, which is dismaying in its diversity. Brookfield (1988:14) enumerates no less than twenty six "distinctive fields of adult education practices", and it is not certain by any means that he has exhausted the list (e.g. hedoes not include classes for new immigrants or literacy classes, which in some countries figure prominently in the adult education enterprise). In any case, the tremendous diversity of adult education concerns makes it difficult, if not impossible, to speak of a single profession or discipline. In fact, one of the most prominent professors of adult education in the United States, Cyril O. Houle, has written (1960): "The educators of adults belong potentially not to a single profession, but to a family of professions." The attempt to develop a training programme for senior adult educators must grapple therfore not merely with the challenge of identifying a single set of `needs of the profession', but first and foremost with the challenge of finding a common denominator of professional needs from among a bewildering variety of fields included under the heading of adult education.

Adult eduction is not only a very diverse enterprise, but it also has a number of different connotations. On the one hand it is an `emerging profession', aspiring to professional status and recognition, but at the same time it displays many of the attributes of a `movement' and it is very reluctant to give up the spontaneity, informality and flexibility that have historically characterized its development. Attempts to professionalize adult education are frequently met with expressions of caution and fear of closing the door to the `gifted amateur'.

Fifty years ago, two leading figures in American adult education, Harry and Bonaro Overstreet, writing on the question of leadership training (Brookfield 1988: 105) maintained that, "In many respects, adult education resembles a religious movement more than it resembles our regular school system". As a result "we need to remind ourselves every so often that the best leadersof the future will probably be made by processes not unlike those that have made the best leaders of the past and present: processes that have had a minimum to do with academic routines and curricular niceties and a maximum to do with the handling of concrete situations in a world of living men and women."

Adult education is, nonetheless, also an academic discipline and a field of research, both scholarly and applied. And towering above all other connotations, adult education is overwhelmingly a field of practice impinging upon the life of the community and upon the lives of inumerable persons of various ages and all walks of life. The training of the senior adult educator must take cognizance of these different connotations and equip the trainee to function effectively in a variety of contexts.

Turning now from the field of adult education to the body ofadult educators, we encounter another series of difficulties which render the training of senior personnel rather problematic. Who are the candidates for graduate level training in adult education, and who are the students who have been enrolled in these programmes? Adult education is notorious for the fact that most of the persons working in this field have had little or no systematic training for it. The part-time teachers havegenerally been trained in their subject-matter but not in the teaching of adults, while the full-time, senior personnel almost invariably come from some other occupation. In this connection, a pungent comment by Boshier (1985) is very appropriate: "...so many (adult educators) come to adult education through the legendary back door one wonders if there is a front entrance."

In 1964 A.A. Liveright (1964:93) reported that few senior adult educators had advanced training in adult education, most came from other occupations, many looked upon adult education as a stepping stone rather than as a permanent career and most of them were action rather than research oriented. Similarly, Houle, writing in 1964, (1964:80) stated that "...graduate students in adult education today are for the most part people who were trained in some other discipline, who just happened to enter the field... or who decided to build a career for themselves, and who returned (usually between the ages of 35 and 45) to embark on a graduate programme." Twenty years later, a survey of adult educators in the United States conducted by the Learning Resources Network (LERN) found that, "The typical practicing adult educator is new to the position, has little or no course work in adult education, comes from a field outside of adult education and is likely to leave it in five years." (Merriam 1988:32) There is no reason to believe that in the past ten years since the LERN survey there has been a significant shift in the composition of the cadre of senior adult educators.

In view of the rather formidable difficulties facing any attempt to set up a graduate training programme in adult education, the question naturally arises whether such programmes are really necessary. Perhaps the Overstreets quoted above are right in maintaining that the best training for adult education leaders is the school of experience in a world of living men and women, and not some academic courses in an ivory university tower. This question is asked by no less a figure than Cyril O. Houle, one of the leading professors of adult education in the United States in the last generation and a pioneer in developing graduate study programmes in adult education. In an article titled "The Emergence of Graduate Study in Adult Education" published in 1964, (in Jensen 1964) he concludes with the following: "Can graduate curricula (now in existence or to be developed in the future) provide a group of leaders in the field who are so significantly better than those trained by apprenticeship that the cost of such curricula can be justified? Can those who are recruited for graduate training measure up to those who have been chosen by the crude but effective self-selection which is now the rule? Can the great lore of the creative but untrained practitioners of adult education be studied so that it can be passed on in a more systematic fashion? These questions confront the professors of adult education and their colleagues and they will be answered, one way or another, in the next quarter century." More than a quarter of a century later we can say that these questions have not yet been resolved one way or another. On the one hand, the programmes of graduate study in adult education in universities throughout the world have been growing steadily (see UNESCO 1982) but on the other hand, the senior positions in adult education are still filled primarily in the same way as they were thirty and forty years ago, viz. by persons with no academic training in adult education and who come in to adult education by way of the proverbial 'backdoor'.

The fact that Houle's questions have not been resolved, however, does not argue against the maintenance and development of graduate study programmes. On the contrary, the anomalous situation in adult education, whereby the leaders in the field have had no systematic training in adult education and come from various other occupations, is precisely the factor which makes graduate study programmes not only desirable but necessary. Among the characteristics of adult education leaders Liveright (1964:93-94) found that "many are concerned about their status and position as adult educators and do not as yet feel completely identified with the field or if they do, they feel themselves second-rate citizens in the academic hierarchy." Persons such as these not only need, but are also eager to participate in graduate level training in adult education. They have had training in some other field, or a general liberal arts education, and they feel the lack of systematic training in adult education. Also, they seeek to clarify and bolster their professional identity as adult educators.

Assuming then, that graduate study programmes for senior adult educators are a good thing and fulfill a need both of the field (the profession) and of the practitioners (the professionals), the next question is that of curriculum. Given the diversity of the field and the variegated backgrounds of the target population of senior adult educators, is it possible to design a common core of studies which will be of benefit and interest to all? In fact, this question has occupied the attention of professors of adult education ever since the first graduate study programme was inaugurated at Columbia University's Teachers College in New York some sixty years ago. As Brookfield (1988:266) put it "... the question of what comprises a suitable curriculum for those who are training to become educators of adults has been debated at least since the conferring of the first doctoral degree in adult education in the United States (in 1935 at Columbia Unviersity, Teachers College)." This effort was given added impetus and direction by the establishment in 1956, by the Adult Education Association of the U.S.A., of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education. The Commission took form at a special conference on training convened by the Adult Education Association in May 1955, known as the Allerton Park Conference. "The major concerns of the conference were the content and purpose of a graduate study programme, the role of the professor of adult education in this programme, and the recruitment and placement of graduate students." (Kreitlow 1964:327). As a result of this conference a proposal was prepared and submitted to the W.K. Kellogg Foundation which authorized an initial five year grant to support the Commission's work. Among the six purposes listed for the Commission in the proposal to the Kellog Foundation, we find 'to identify the elements that should be included in the content of a curriculum of graduate education for professional adult educators" (Kreitlow 1964:328). Indeed, in 1986 the Commission of Professors, meeting in Hollywood, Florida, adopted a document setting forth "Standards for Graduate Programmes in Adult Education." This statement groups the standards into six categories: curriculum, faculty, organization of graduate study, students' programmes, resources and facilities, and scholarship. (Brookfield 1988:234-41). As regards curriculum, The Commission differentiated between the Master's level and doctoral level. At the Master's level, the core areas include the following:- introduction to the fundamental nature, function and scope of adult education. adult learning and development. - adult education programme and process planning, delivery and evaluation. - historical, philosophical and sociological foundations. - an overview of educational research.'

The Commission goes on to add that, `These core areas are supplemented by additional study appropriate to students' needs and goals,' which `might involve study in other faculties.' The core areas on the doctoral level are basically similar to those on the Master's level, but `at once more far-ranging and more intensive.' It is probably safe to assume that the standards adopted by the Commission of Professors are more a reflection of the situation pertaining at the universities with which they were affiliated than a document developed out of theoretical considerations or scholarly research. A 1986 survey lists 153 Master's degree programmes in adult education in the United States and Canada and 91 doctoral programmes (Brookfield 1988:267) and I would venture to guess that the core curricula in all - or certainly most - of these programmes have a striking resemblance to the areas listed in the Commission of Professors' standards. This view finds some support in a study by Brookfield of characteristics of graduate programmes published in 1988. In it he writes `Notwithstanding... ambiguities in definition and classification, and the variations in ranked importance, the core elements of the graduate adult education curricula are remarkably consistent. Master's and doctoral students concentrate their adult education studies in five key areas: progamme development, adult learning and development, foundations of adult education, teaching methods and instructional processes, and the management and administration of adult and continuing education institutions' (Brookfield 1988:274).

The emergence of these five key areas as the core curriculum of graduate study programs in adult education is a result of the accumulated experience and knowledge of the professors of adult education in the various programmes, as well as of the feedback garnered from the students in these programmes. Although several systematic attempts have been made to investigate the knowledge, skills and attitudes required by senior adult educators, and to develop a list of `competencies' (Chamberlain 1961 and Grabowski 1976), or "proficiencies" (the term preferred by Knox (1979)), which could serve as a basis for a core curriculum, in practice these commendable efforts have had minimal impact on the actual implementation of graduate programmes.

Turning now to the picture in Israel, I regret to say that we have had only very limited experience in advanced level training programmes. In the absence of academic study programmess for senior adult educators in the universities in Israel, the Martin Buber Center for Adult and Continuing Education at the Hebrew University of Jerusalem initiated a diploma course in adult education which ran for several years. Interestingly enough, the participants were remarkably similar in background and motivation to those described by Liveright (1964:93-94) and mentioned earlier in this article.

This training course evolved a few years ago into a more specialized programme to train senior personnel in educational gerontology. However, the need to provide advanced-level training for adult educators re-asserted itself, and the Buber Center in conjunction with the Division of Adult Education in the Ministry of Education and Culture is now committed to resuscitating the training course for senior adult educators. In connection with the preparations to restore this course, we recently convened a one-day conference at which an outline of a proposed curriculum was presented and discussed. The participants in the conference represented a wide cross-section of agencies and institutions involved in adult education activities, including government ministries, regional and local authorities, voluntary bodies, the military, the police, industrial and commercial enterprises, universities, and others.

I would like to briefly convey the essentials of the proposed curriculum, and report on some of the points raised during the discussions at the conference. The curriculum includes five broad areas and two specific ones. The broad areas are: history and philosophy of adult education, psychology of adult education, sociology of adult education, organization and administration of adult education, and methodology in adult education. The two specific areas are: characteristics of Israeli society as they impinge on adult education and the adult education enterprise in Israel. Under the broad heading of history and philosophy, the proposal lists such topics as: developments in adult education in the 19th and 20th centuries in a number of countries, such as Denmark, England, United States, Third World, Eastern Europe; issues in the philosophy of adult education, including: the right to educate adults; education versus indoctrination; adult education in the hierarchy of national priorities; the position of the teacher in adult education; adult education in Jewish tradition. Under the rubric of psychology are listed such topics as develomental psychology through the life-span, characteristics of the adult learner, motivation in adult education, learning difficulties and learning styles. Since the training course is rather limited in the number of class hours, the topics cannot be treated either very extensively or in great depth in the classroom. However, ample room is allotted to individual projects and self-study. In fact the proposed curriculum includes the admonition that the course itself should serve as a model of good adult education practice and be built on active learning, a minimum amount of frontal lectures, a teacher-student relationship based on 'prima inter pares', experiential learning, etc.

The comments and reactions to the proposed curriculum were elicited in small discussion groups, and one of the major thrusts of the comments was to stress the applied aspects of the curriculum topics and keep the purely academic and theoretical aspects to a minimum. Even the titles of the major headings were brought under scrutiny, and it was suggested that the terms "history" and "philosophy" of adult education be replaced by titles such as "trends" or "developments" in adult education and "issues" or "controversies" in adult education, in order to convey the message that the content of the course will be applied and relevant to the concerns of the adult educators in the field, who are the potential students of the course.

In conclusion, it would be safe to say that unlike most professions or academic disciplines, adult education does not yet have a clearly delineated, distinctive body of knowledge which the professional or specialist is required to master. The curriculum for graduate study remains, therefore, somewhat amorphous and indeterminate. Under these circumstances, and in view of the multi-faceted nature of the adult education enterprise, the most effective guidelines for a graduate programme curriculum remain the knowledge, experience and informed intuition of seasoned professors of adult education.

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The Professionalisation of Continuing Educators in The UK: an Appropriate Model for the Future?

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Introduction

The curriculum for the professional development of teachers in Britain is currently undergoing fundamental reorganisation and change. The first group to have been affected were primary school teachers: Within the past year, the government has modified the curriculum of their initial teacher-training by increasing the amount of time they will spend in schools-based training. Essentially, this has shifted the control of the curriculum away from the universities and located it supposedly closer to the influence of the employers - in this case, the schools.

Now the impetus for change is focussing on the initial stage of the professional development of teachers in further and continuing education. The pressure is coming from certain quarters - principally the Further Education Unit (FEU) and the City and Guilds (C&G)- who are pressing for a curriculum geared to work -based competencies. The implications of these proposals have been explored and discussed by a number of authors, for example Last and Chown (1993: 234-236) and Ecclestone (1993: 269-271). Given this pressure, the widespread interest in National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) and a more general, widespread realisation that many areas of professional practice need rethinking, we considered it worthwhile to examine the structure and content of the curriculum for the training and education of continuing educators.

The starting point for our exercise was Johnson's contention (1984:) concerning professionalisation. He stated that the process of professionalisation is a process generated internally by an occupational group leading eventually to an increase in status acquired through recognised training, which is usually university based. Taking as an example of professionalisation the route by which adult and continuing educators become qualified, we have examined the curricula of British Certificates, Diplomas and Masters degrees with a view to answering the following questions:

1. What is their knowledge base?

2. How are skills (pedagogical, managerial etc) developed?

3. At what stage in the professional development of a practitioner is a programme taken?

4. Is there a norm in terms of mode of delivery and content,and what doesthis tell us about professional practice?

5. How does this professionalisation match up with some recent thinking on professional development?

The Survey

Method

We contacted by telephone all British universities that offered professional qualifications (ie Certificates, Diplomas and Masters courses) in Adult and/or Continuing Education. They were requested to send details of current (1992 onwards) courses by post. Seventeen universities were contacted, and we received material from fifteen, although some material was not suitable for our purposes. We examined twelve Masters degrees, nine Diplomas and three Certificates, all of which were contained either 'adult', ' continuing' or 'community' in their title. The survey, therefore, at this stage does not cover all such courses in the UK.

There were considerable variations in terms of the amount of information contained in the course material and in terms of its accessibility. This was particularly true for course content, where some were explained in great detail and others were sketched briefly, consisting of little more than headings. The methods by which we analysed and classified the content of courses was therefore based on a certain amount of subjective interpretation. Other aspects of the courses were more tangible and included aims, course length, teaching methods, assessment methods, structure, progression routes, target groups, entry requirements, and stage of professional development. Our analysis of these is therefore more objective.

Results

Table 1.
TARGET GROUPS

TYPE OF COURSE	TARGET GROUPS	ENTRY REQUIREMENTS	STAGE OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	COURSE CONTENT
MASTERS AND DIPLOMA	Experienced practitioners in: • Adult/Continuing Education. • Higher Education personnel. • Health Service. • Other public services. • Private organisations. • Prison personnel. • Voluntary bodies. • The church.	• Graduate or equlivalent. • Experienced practitiiners. • Trained/qualified practitioners. NB. For most courses all 3 requirements were necessary. Some advanced standing available. In some cases applicants were required to submit an essay.	2 years minimum experience	Research (all Masters) (5) Policies, principles and issues (18) Management and administration (7) Psychology and learning (4) International comparative aspects (5) Teaching and learning (14) Projects of student's choice
CERTIFICATE	Practitioner in: • Continuing Education. • Further Education. • Health Services. • Youth and Community. • Religion and Church. • Dance and Recreation.	• Graduate or quivalent. • Other professional qualification. • Experienced but unqualified teachers. • Novice teachers	initial	Psychology and learning. Teaching and learning methods. Policies and principles. Access guidance. Work based learning.

Numbers in Brackets ( ) refer to the number of topics in each main content area. They indicate variety not frequency.

Other topics included were access, work based learning, equal opportunities, specialised teaching etc.

Table 2.

AIMS AND STRUCTURE OF QUALIFICATIONS

TYPE OF COURSE	AIMS	LENGTH OF COURSE	TEACHING METHODS	ASSESSMENT METHODS	STRUCTURE	PROGRESSION
MASTERS	Understanding of issues in adult education Understanding the links between policy and practice Develop effective management Enable ability to cope with change Develop individual educational and social purpose Develop academic interests Develop research expertise Raise questions on issues Create a research community Analyse training and development	FT 1year (1.5 in one case) PT 2 years 2-4 years 2-5 years 3-6 years up to 6 years	lectures seminars presentations case studies minor projects	essays- up to 4000 words reports-between 10-12000 words examinations- (some without dissertations) between 15-20000 words oral examination- (in one case)	some modular credit based CATS	Yes- to higher degree usually doctorate
DIPLOMA	Creation of democratic, participative society Understanding of issues in adult education Deeper understanding of principles and methods Increase professional confidence Reflect on experience Raise questions on issues Prepare for further academic study Develop management effectiveness Enable ability to cope with change Further develop practical experience Enhance professional practice	FT 1year PT 2/3 years	lectures seminars presentations case studies minor projects	essays seminars presentations case studies projects examinations (some without dissertations) - up to 10000 words oral examination- (in one case)	some modular credit based CATS	Yes- To Masters some by additional study plus dissertation majority by means of additional dissertation
CERTIFICATE	to provide qualified teacher status teacher status to develop professional practice	FT 1 year PT 2 years	lectures seminars practical experience of teaching	essays learning journals examinations peer assessment observation of teaching	some modular credit based CATS	Yes- to diploma or Masters

NOTES

1. Masters courses were MA, M.Ed, MBA and MSc

2. In one university the M.Ed was described as a degree leading to a broader understanding of the field, whereas the MA was an introduction to research methods. In another university this position was reversed.

3. There was considerable overlap between the aims of masters and diplomas.

4. The table does not show the following:
-some programmes (three) allowed entry three times a year.
-one programme incorporated distance learning.
-one Masters programme allowed advanced standing entry.

FT = Full Time
PT = Part Time

Discussion

The curriculum - where we are now

For the purposes of this survey, we defined the knowledge base of professional continuing educators as the content of the programmes examined. We assumed that this knowledge-base has been developed by professionals and represents the crux of that which must be known in order to be considered as a qualified professional. Our results were similar to those obtained by Harrop and Woodcock (1990: 115-121) who found that the theoretical content of Diplomas and Masters covered about five broad areas, but within those areas there was wide variation. As a result, certain topics (which could be regarded as of fundamental importance) such as access and independent learning, were thinly spread and others, such as Quality were not covered at all. However, it may be that these topics were included but not stated explicitly in the course material and it is possible that within the past twelve months courses may have been revised.

There was a marked contrast between the curricula of Certificates (initial qualifications) and Diplomas/Masters. Certificates appeared to have as their main aim the development of a practising teacher/lecturer. In contrast, candidates for Diplomas and Masters were required to be experienced and qualified practitioners, so course content concentrated on the broader issues in continuing education. Our analysis is summarised as follows:

The curricula of Certificates

- the aim: to develop the basic level of competence required by a practitioner

- the content included practical skills and some theory about general issues

- successful completion required competence in both practice and theory.

The focus is on the individual as a practitioner, whose environment is the classroom. The practitioner is aware of issues beyond the classroom but not expected to participate in them. S\he operates in a manner which is almost de-contextualised.

The curricula of Diplomas

- the aim: to develop a deeper understanding of issues in a general sense

- they provided opportunities to reflect on professional practice and to increase in confidence

- the content included more theory than Certificates, the list of topics was longer

- the content covered a wider range of issues than Certificates, for example practice and management issues and relationships between theory and practice

- successful completion depended mainly on competence in written assignments (some linked to practical issues).Two Diplomas assessed practical skills; one by teaching practice and another by oral examination.

The focus is on the further development of the practitioner but within an environment which extends beyond the classroom and interfaces with the wider social, policy and management environment. The practitioner operates within in a wider context but is to some extent separated from it.

The curricula of Masters degrees

- the aims: to develop a deeper understanding of issues in a general sense and to develop research expertise

- they provided opportunities for reflective practice and an increase in confidence

- the content included more theory than Diplomas, the list of topics was longer

- the content covered a wider range of issues than Diplomas, generally in terms of the interaction between practitioner and institution, policy,and relationships between theory and practice

- the development of research skills and expertise were stressed

- by means of a dissertation, graduates developed specialised knowledge in a deeper, narrower field

- successful completion depended mainly on competence in written assignments, examinations and a dissertation.There was no practical assessment, (ie teaching practice)and one example of an oral examination.

The focus is on the further development of the practitioner who interacts with a wider academic, social, policy and management environment. The practitioner operates within this wide context and there are hints (but not explicitly) of the individual as a proactive agent of change. The practitioner as academic researcher is explicit.

In terms of content two key features emerged:

Figure 1. The shape of professional development

Masters ⇔ Narrow

Diploma ⇔ Broad

Certificate ⇔ Narrow

Figure 2 The route to professional development

Masters ⇧ Interactive with context/environment

Diploma ⇧ Awareness and understanding of context/environment

Certificate ⇧ De-contextualised

In both cases progression seemed to be linear and vertical.

Another feature which seemed to be implied although not made explicit (and was therefore weaker) was the idea of moving from novice to experienced practitioner and then to professional - from powerless to powerful. This suggested a growing sense of control over the environment in which practitioners operate. This could be based on an assumption that the applicants for Masters programmes are more likely to be in senior positions - they are certainly more experienced. It was not clear from the materials we examined (which were not complete course documents) which of these two was operating but it is important as the first concerns professional practice the second is more concerned with status.

The results of our survey have indicated that overall, the route to professional development for these continuing educators conforms closely to one particular pattern of professional qualification as described by Squires (1990:89). This pattern has as its defining characteristic an initial period of qualified practice followed later by theoretical study. Bearing in mind the caveats to which we earlier referred concerning the source of our information, we would assert that the aims and content of the curricula above Certificate level are, however, academic rather than professional mainly because of the strong relationship between what is taught and a body of theoretical knowledge.Another reason for this assertion is that the higher the level of the qualification academic research became an increasingly more important component of the curriculum.

In addition, we found no explicit mention of professional issues or the ideology of practice which would be expected of a practice-based, externally oriented programme. There was little evidence that these curricula covered the new developments in professional practices which are part of the every day experience of continuing educators. Examples of topics such as modularisation, Credit Accumulation and Transfer, Assessment of Prior Learning, independent study, self directed learning, learning outcomes and NVQs were offered, but taking the courses as a whole, the spread was thin and often these topics were available only peripherally, as options.

Furthermore, the modes of assessment provided clues to the nature of the courses. In general, assessment took the traditional academic form of essays and theoretical examinations with a research dissertation as the apex of achievement. There were examples of peer group evaluation and self evaluation, oral examinations and work-based assessment of skills, but these were not widespread (see Table 1).

The curriculum - where should we be?

According to Warren -Piper (1984:) the impetus for change in any professional education results from two main sources. The first is change in the profession itself and the second is change in the theory and practice of that education. With respect to the first of these, adult/continuing education has undergone numerous upheavals within recent years. Perhaps the most significant transforming agent has been the government legislation of 1988 and 1992, which has seriously affected the practice of continuing education. For example in London, little now remains of centralised London authority provision. The tutors from these courses had been the mainstay of Diploma/ Masters courses in continuing education (Arthur, personal communication) but the students on such courses now come from a greater variety of organisations and practice under circumstances quite different to those found in the now defunct Adult Education Centres. At the same time, there have been fundamental changes in the working practices of continuing educators in universities and this sector is about to undergo another major change in funding. The details are not yet fully known but they will add up to a significant number of changes in the profession itself.

Changes in the curriculum of professional education provide the second major impetus for change (Warren-Piper,op.cit.) The curriculum of any profession is generally influenced by three main agents: the educational provider (the university), the state and the practitioners. Taking the role of the universities first we would agree with the conclusion of Harrop and Woodcock (op.cit.) that the curricula, which were examined in this study, reflect the interests of university academics. What is now happening is that the state is beginning to exert its influence through the FEU, C&Gs and NVQs. But what of the needs of the practitioners?

The practitioners are a very varied group as can be seen from Table 1. In spite of the heterogeneous nature of this group, we would argue that as continuing educators, they exhibit many of the characteristics of professionals. For example, a recent survey of continuing educators (both full and part-time) carried out by Parker and Gray (1992: 10-11) asked practitioners to define good practice. Their replies agreed with other studies on professionals, which have shown that effective professional performance is a complex of personal qualities and knowledge. If professional development is to be oriented towards fulfilling a professional role, it should therefore include the development of knowledge, interpersonal skills and the individual.

However, continuing educators work in a wide variety of work contexts; what should be the purpose of their professional development - should it be for the ordinary, general practitioner or should it focus on the experts? And what is an ordinary general practitioner; is he/she employed solely as a teacher (as are the part-time tutors) or as a manager of the quality of the curriculum, or (as a consequence of cost centres) as a manager and administrator of personnel and resources. Who is an expert? Is expertise based on practice or on research and scholarship?

Leaving these questions to one side for a moment, we would like to consider some of the challenges to professional education, which need consideration in any curriculum which is future oriented.

The future -how do we get there?

As a result of identifying the challenges to the future of professional education in general, several authors (Eraut 1992:98-118; Schuller 1991:1-21; Squires 1990: 92-96) have identified issues which need to be considered. These include:

the need to continue to update knowledge*

the need to understand and use effectively finance, marketing and management practices and new technology

the development of interpersonal skills required to work in groups and teams

the ability to deal with the demands of increasingly highly educated and well informed client/student groups

the ability to accommodate external challenges to the profession

the need to satisfy public accountability through quality assurance and control

a knowledge of European professional practice with a view to mutual recognition and mobility

We consider that these issues are relevant to the professional education of continuing educators and that they will become increasingly so. The knowledge* to which we have referred here is in line with Schon's thinking (1983) which is a broad one within the context of professionlisation. Eraut (1992:98-118) attempted to map out the areas of knowledge that could form the basis of professional education. He suggested that there should be an initial qualification, part of which should be performance based, in which propositional (codified, discipline based) knowledge is kept to a minimum unless there are opportunities to use it in practice. Process knowledge (what professionals do) should be of central importance. This initial stage should be linked to a system of advanced qualifications and continuing professional development.

This seems to be an admirable model for most professions. The field we have considered, is however, complicated in two important ways. Firstly, many of the 'students' are already professional in a different field: they may think of themselves primarily as nurses, social workers, engineers, plumbers, carpenters and so on. Secondly the triangular relationship between the state, the education system, and the professions as described by Warren Piper (1984,op.cit.) is less clearly defined. The state (for many continuing educators) is the employer as well as the aspiring regulator of the profession, a feature shared with many other professions in the public sector in particular. In addition, the profession is education not a client group nor an accrediting body in relation to it. Thus there is a tension between, on the one hand, continuing education as a challenging (some might argue subversive) agent of change, anxious to widen its client base and both widen and increase participation, and on the other hand a profession which is conservative, protectionist, elitist, anxious to defend its territory and increase its status. The tension is not one which can be resolved by the groups negotiating, collaborating or struggling for power because they are one group; it is an internal contradiction and conflict.

These features may in part explain why, as indicated earlier, the programmes we examined showed a strong sense of ownership by higher education and a weak sense of professional identity. The problem with this position is that the current political climate is anti-professional - not only teachers and academics but doctors, lawyers, even the police have been challenged. The main thrust of this challenge has come from the new right arguing for greater power to the consumer through market mechanisms, but there are echoes of long held left wing criticisms of elitism and exclusionary practices, arguing for empowerment of the client. Perhaps it is this conjuncture of right and left which leaves the professions so embattled. While we do not wish to see a profession of continuing educators which is exclusive and powerful, neither do we wish to see the structure, content and assessment of the curriculum dictated by the state.

If we are to avoid these twin dangers, we must review our process of professionalisation and embed it on firm academic and professional foundations and seize the initiative in the political debate. We must take the challenge of change to the external environment and look forwards and outwards; rather than waiting for change to be thrust upon us so that we are obliged to defend old territory.

What then are the key features of the professionalisation process of the future?
We suggest the following:

1. A linked system of education and training which bridges the gap between the two and gives equal attention to the academic and professional dimensions of development.

2. The integration of knowledge and practice in a way which benefits both: work-based learning, critical reflection on practice followed through into action and change.

3. Programmes which are flexible and accessible to working professionals: open and distance learning, mixed modes, roll-on roll-off programmes with enrolment throughout the year, advanced standing, APEL

4. Innovative assessment including self evaluation, peer group evaluation, oral assessment, the assessment of interpersonal skills, group work, seminar presentation, oral examinations.

5. Workshops, seminars, conferences, networking activities,self directed learning and so on as integral parts of the programme.

6. A system of qualifications which provides for vertical progression through credit accumulation.

7. Upper levels which promote expertise in management and research but also leadership,vision and creativity in scholarship and professional practice.

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In-service training and development of clinical educators in Orthopaedic Surgery, Sports Medicine,and Veterinary Medicine

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An on-going effort to strengthen in-service training and development of clinical educators was initiated in 1968, sponsored by the American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons. There have been several spin-off developmental efforts in Sports Medicine and clinical Veterinary Medicine. The main focus of this paper is on three "lessons learned" from those developmental efforts.

In orthopaedics, the main "lesson learned" was that it is important for in-service training and development of clinical educators to be designed and implemented by an interdisciplinary team. In such efforts:

(a) It is important for collaborating educators and physicians alike to realize that both groups are likely to know something about the other's professional world, mainly through life experience.

(b) Potential problems should be identified early on and, to the extent possible, avoided or minimized.

(c) Progress has typically been made when there has been a clear, recognizable, and explicitly stated idea which serves as a central focus for the collaborative work.

In sports medicine, the main lesson learned was that "anomaly-based workshops" can be used to help experts address and enter into dialogue with each other about what they have learned from theory and experience regarding how to understand and deal with specific ill-defined, complex, and/or risky problems, issues, or concerns. Through such workshops, some "knowledge in action," which may otherwise remain at a tacit level, can be made explicit. A main outcome of such workshops is consensually validated guidelines for practitioners.

The main "lesson learned" in the field of veterinary medicine was the importance of strengthening field experiences for novices. Typically, the students' role in production medicine investigations is little more than being an observer and/or doing routine, technical tasks while a clinical professor conducts the investigation. A method was developed and is described in this paper for having students as integral rather than peripheral participants in production medicine investigations.

An on-going effort to strengthen in-service training and development of clinical educators was initiated (Lippert 1986: 14) in 1968, sponsored by the American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons. Throughout, those efforts were designed and implemented by interdisciplinary teams, consisting of clinical professors of orthopaedic surgery and adult educators (Professor William Griffith, now at the University of British Columbia, between 1968 and 1971; thereafter, the author of this paper). Subsequently, there have been several spin-off developmental efforts, including those in the fields of Sports Medicine and clinical Veterinary Medicine. The main focus of this paper is on three "lessons learned" from those developmental efforts.

Lesson Learned in Orthopaedics

In orthopaedics, the main "lesson learned" was that it is important for in-service training and development of clinical educators to be designed and implemented by an interdisciplinary team. The main conditions for such training and development activity were identified a decade ago (Farmer, Schafer, and Lippert 1983: 14-15, 25,28) by an interdisciplinary team, consisting of a continuing educator (the author of this paper) and two clinical professors of orthopaedic surgery (Schafer and Lippert), who have collaborated in designing and implementing in-service training and development of clinical educators since 1975. The following statements up-date and extend, in the light of that interdisciplinary team's collaborative experiences during the past decade, what appeared in the 1983 article.

It is important for collaborating educators and physicians alike to realize that both groups are likely to know something about the other's professional world, mainly through life experience. On the one hand, physicians have engaged in considerable education and self-directed learning to get licensed and keep current in their field of practice. They tend to have ideas about what does and does not facilitate the learning and development of clinicians. Some of those ideas will be readily identifiable by educators; others may be harder to identify, position theoretically, and understand from the educator's perspective. On the other hand, most educators are likely to be somewhat familiar with the medical world from periodically having been patients and/or from visiting hospitals and other clinical setting. Such experiences, however, make them only vaguely aware of what it means to work in the medical environment. The differences between educators and physicians and what each brings to the collaboration constitute the basis for a symbiotic relationships between them.

For physician-educator interactions to go well, potential problems should be identified early on and, to the extent possible, avoided or minimized. Often, there is fear or suspicion of other types of professionals. By training and, perhaps, by personality, there are differences in role and perspective. Communication between physicians and educators can be difficult. For example, what each means by "evaluation" and "assessment" may well vary considerably. The styles of power usage tend to be quite different for physicians and educators. It is essential that educators not take inordinate offense at what, to them, may seem to be misuses of power by the physicians and that physicians come to understand and accept educators' quite different style of power usage (or down-playing of it) in educational settings.

We have found that physician-educator interactions have gone particularly well when there has been idea dominance, or, in other words, when there has been a clear, recognizable, and explicitly stated idea which serves as a central focus for the collaborative work. Ideas that have dominated our thinking periodically have included: identifying appropriate roles of the clinical sub-specialist in problem-based learning; understanding the nature of viable career development for clinical academicians; and developing effective ways to teach ethics and professional behavior to orthopaedic residents.

Further, our collaborative efforts have tended to go well when there have been periodic achievements; organizational support from our respective departments and colleges; a positive chemistry between the personality types of the collaborators; and a setting which permits uninterrupted work. Working together in the physician's clinical environment is possible but subject to frequent interruptions. The educator must realize that patients' needs come first, particularly when the physician is "on call."

Physician-educator interactions tend to be hindered if the educator makes sweeping generalizations out of the context of medical reality. If possible, the educator should attempt to provide a clinical example and relate the concept to it. Early in our collaboration, the educator frequently would introduce concepts and procedures from the adult and continuing education literature and try to teach them to the physician collaborators. Sometimes this was successful, particularly when the physician collaborators were able to teach those concepts, in turn, to other clinicians in in-service training and development activities.

Recently, however, we have found it more productive for a team, consisting of a physician and an educator, to spend considerable time observing and listening to what occurs in a variety of in-service training and development activities for clinicians and clinical educators. They then interview a sample of the instructor(s) and learner(s) regarding what they considered to be facilitating and limiting factors in the teaching-learning transaction. Findings are then related, if possible, to concepts and procedures from the adult and continuing education literature and/or other relevant literature. We have found that physician-collaborators are more effective than educators in communicating the findings of such inquiry to other clinicians and clinical educators.

In physician-educator interactions, how educators indicate that they think physicians are in error on important matters pertaining to teaching and learning can affect their on-going working relationship either negatively or positively. One physician noted that it is undesirable for an educator merely to tell a physician: "You are wrong." It is far more desirable for the educator to note tactfully the nature of the potential error or misconception and point out the consequences if the physician's position is taken. Then the potential consequences of the educator's position can be identified. This approach allows physicians to come to their own conclusions about important matters.

It seems essential that educators and graduate students planning to work in clinical settings have experience in the medical world. Particularly helpful is observing physicians engage in clinical work in a variety of setting, ranging from the clinic to the operating room and from the hospital committee meeting to the court room. They should also observe various forms of pre-medical, medical, and specialization instruction to become aware of the full range of teaching and learning activities engaged by clinicians and those preparing to work in clinical settings. Included should be lectures, clinical conferences, rounds, grand rounds, and complication conferences. What is learned in such instructional activities lays the foundation for or supplements what is learned through cognitive apprenticeship (Farmer, Buchmaster, and LeGrand 1992: 41-50) and practice in the operating rooms, emergency rooms, and clinics. What the educator has to offer to in-service training and development of clinical educators will generally be perceived as meaningful and relevant to clinical educators to the extent that it has been contextualized in the full sweep of how clinicians are trained and develop.

Lesson Learned in Sports Medicine

In sports medicine, the main lesson learned was that "anomaly-based workshops" can be used to help experts address and enter into dialogue with each other about what they have learned from theory and experience regarding how to understand and deal with specific ill-defined, complex, and/or risky problems, issues, or concerns. Through such workshops, some "knowledge in action," (Ruesch 1975) which may otherwise remain at a tacit level, can be made explicit. A main outcome of such workshops is consensually validated guidelines for practitioners.

The author of this paper surveyed 450 professionals in five fields, including orthopaedics, asking them to identify what they considered to be their most meaningful work-related learning experiences. Respondents most frequently specified that their most meaningful work-related learning experiences occurred in relatively small specialty workshop, focusing on areas that were not only important for their practice but also anomalous to them. In such workshops, they stated, inquiry was the main activity engaged in by the participants. Participants in some of the workshops consisted of homogeneous groups of expert practitioners; others, heterogeneous groups of expert practitioners from one or more fields and scientists from one or more of the basic or applied sciences. The workshops where designed mainly to make contributions to clinical practice. Such workshops can be referred to generically as "anomaly-based workshops," although they are sometimes merely called "workshops" or "conferences."

Since 1985, the American Orthopaedic Society for Sports Medicine (AOSSM) has sponsored five anomaly-based workshop that were directed by the author of this paper. Anomalies addressed in these workshop have included: strength training and the prepubescent (Cahill 1988); the effects of modalities (Drez 1993); sports-induced inflammation (Leadbetter, Buckwalter, and Gordon 1990); extraarticular reconstruction in the anterior cruciate ligament deficient knee (Pearl and Bergfeld, 1992); the female athlete (Pearl 1993); and the effects of intensive training and participation in sports by the young athlete (Cahill and Pearl 1993).

Based on their experiences with anomaly-based workshops, members of the Education Committee of the American Orthopaedic Society for Sports Medicine (AOSSM), with the assistance of the author of this paper, developed a manual entitled: "AOSSM Workshop Template" (AOSSM 1990: 1-18). Presented in that document are guidelines and recommendations for developing and implementing anomaly-based workshops. The following are highlights from that document.

It has been found to be particularly important that all participants be helped prior to and, if necessary, during workshops to understand the difference between continuing medical education (CME) courses and anomaly-based workshops. CME courses are designed to impart knowledge, didactically, and to update practitioners about crucial aspects of the field. They start with the known and inform participants about the what, how, when, and why. Through symposia and panel presentations, which are other forms of CME, national prospectives on current issues and problems can be presented. In contrast, anomaly-based workshops address anomalous or otherwise problematic important areas of a field of study and practice. "An anomaly is an issue that is puzzling or problematic because it deviates from or is inconsistent with normal expectations." (Farmer 1990: 779) An anomalous area is one in which theories and techniques should apply, but do not. Anomaly-based workshops can also address and chart important heretofore uncharted areas relative to a field of study and practice.

While learning can occur both in CME courses and anomaly-based workshops, the main purpose of CME courses is to educate (communicate the known); the main purpose of anomaly-based workshops is to create and consensually validate professional knowledge. Consensual validation not only results in a state-of- the-art statement but also presents majority and minority opinions on controversial or provocative issues.

The purpose of an anomaly-based workshop is to bring together a manageable number of participants (15-25), who are concerned about a problematic areas, problem, issue, concern, or anomaly, and because of their training, experience, and/or position (i.e., representative of a concerned organization or agency) are appropriate persons to address the problematic area. They are like the proverbial ten blind men and the elephant, each knowing or being able to learn about part of what is being examined but needing to interact with each other to determine the nature of the focal phenomenon. A workshop functions as a Phase study relative to basic science, clinical, and/or epidemiologic research and established guidelines and recommendations relative to the problematic area for practitioners.

It has been found helpful for members of the Education Committee of a professional association or society to nominate and prioritize what they consider to be the main anomalies currently in the field. Then a significance statement should be developed for each anomaly which is to be addressed in an anomaly-based workshop. The significance statement explains the need for the workshop, the nature and extent of the anomaly to be addressed in it, and why what is proposed should be considered a potentially "high impact" project. Included in the significance statement should be: (a) a description of the clinical, epidemiologic, scientific or socio-economic significance of the anomalous problem, topic, or need; (b) theoretical problem(s), if any, which makes the matter anomalous, such as a poor fit or imbalance between what is known about it clinically, epidemiologically, and/or scientifically; and (c) identification of the "sake holders" or, in other words, who or what cares about the anomaly.

Participants are asked to do a reasonable amount of preparation for an anomaly-based workshop, reviewing relevant literature in limited part of the problematic area, and/or specifying the nature and extent of their concern about this problematic area, their organizations stake in it, and suggestions for dealing with it. They are expected to present briefly in the first part of the workshop what they know about the problematic area. Then the participants typically discuss important aspects of the topic. The purpose of that discussion is to answer questions, identify additional problems, and specify needed research. In the last part of the workshop, recommendations and guidelines are developed that address the problematic area as a whole and important specific aspects of it. It has been found useful to submit each proposed general recommendation or guideline to a vote of all participants. The results of such votes can then appear in the proceedings of the workshop along with majority and minority opinions developed by participants while they are still at the workshop or subsequently.

Lesson Learned in Veterinary Medicine

The main "lesson learned" in the field of veterinary medicine was the importance of strengthening field experiences for novices. Typically, the students' role in production medicine investigations is little more than being an observer and/or doing routine, technical tasks while a clinical professor conducts the investigation. Beginning in 1991, a veterinary trainer (D.J. Sprecher, DVM at Michigan State University's College of Veterinary Medicine) and a trainer of trainers (the author of this paper) conducted a project to develop a method for having students as integral rather than peripheral participants in production medicine investigations. Support for this project was provided through the Interinstitutional Food Animal Production Medicine Program funded by the Pew National Veterinary Education Program to the Food Animal Production Medicine Consortium, College of Veterinary Medicine, University of Illinois.

It is important for veterinary students who are interested in careers in food animal production medicine be integrally involved in production medicine investigations. Central to our system for making this possible is the creation of investigational teams. A clinical professor and the veterinary students constitute the university-based members of the team. Other members of the team typically are the herd owner, herd manager, other employees, the referring veterinarian, and other consultants. The clinical professor acts as the team leader and the students' "coach" throughout the investigation.

The students' involvement should not depend on what they may have learned from preclinical instruction, on their generalizing what they may have learned about the diagnosis and treatment of individual animals, or on their being able to apply general principles of problem solving. Rather, a diagnostic map, a specialized form of concept map (West, Farmer, and Wolff 1991: 93-113), should be made available to them and other members of the team for use throughout the investigation and appropriate problem-solving strategy(ies) should be explicitly identified, agreed upon, and utilized in the investigation. Such a diagnostic map lists the main causes of difficulty for the type of investigation being conducted. For example, an "abnormal days open or penalty days diagnostic map" was developed (Sprecher and Farmer submitted for publication) for use in reproductive investigations on dairy farms.

The primary educational focus throughout the investigation should be on strategies and tactics rather than on recall of information and low-level skill development. A critical decision to be made by the members of the investigative team is which one or more of the following strategies (Vinacke 1972: 202-203) is to be used in the investigation: focused gambling; conservative focusing; successive scanning; or simultaneous scanning. Focused gambling means zooming in on a particular complaint or suspected problem. Conservative focusing entails concentrating on a few complaints or problems while paying considerably less attention to other possibilities. Successive scanning means work through aspects of the situation comprehensively in a prioritized sequence. Simultaneous scanning means examining all problematic areas but not in a prioritized sequence. When simultaneous scanning is used, one or more members of the investigative team are deployed to examine different aspects of the situation simultaneously.

During a pre-visit conference, student participants are briefed. This includes orienting the students to the relevant diagnostic map and relating the initial complaints, received from the farm owner and/or the referring veterinarian, to that diagnostic map. Plans are made for the on-farm visit.

A preliminary conference is subsequently conducted on the farm involving all members of the investigative team. In this conference, all complaints and clues are defined. Problems are listed and ranked. The scope of the investigation is determined, and the problem-solving strategy(ies) to be used is selected.

Diagnostic procedures are then conducted by members of the campus-based team, and the problem list is amended. At a wrap-up conference on the farm and, again, involving all members of the investigative team, the investigation to date is summarized, and the members of the campus-based team state their expectations. Back on campus, members of the campus-based team analyze the data and develop the final problem list. At a post-visit conference on campus, members of the campus-based team agree on the basis of the written summary of the investigation. That summary usually highlights problem areas, makes recommendations, and details proposed future problem-solving efforts, if any. Follow-up activities, on campus and/or on the farm, may include follow-up visits and data analysis, as needed.

We have concluded that our approach to having students as integral rather than peripheral participants in production medicine investigations: (a) makes explicit professional knowledge that is often left tacit through the use of relevant diagnostic maps; (b) involves the students in relatively meaningful "situated learning" (Lave and Wenger 1991); and (c) emphasizes strategies and tactics along with current professional knowledge rather than merely knowledge recall and low-level skills training during production medicine investigations. We have also concluded that such an approach could not have been developed unless a continuing educator and a clinical veterinary educator had collaborated in interdisciplinary inquiry.

Conclusion

The main "lessons learned" during the past two decades from efforts to design and implement in-service training and development of clinical educators in orthopaedic surgery, sports medicine, and veterinary medicine are that:

(a) it is important for in-service training and development of clinical educators to be designed and implemented by an interdisciplinary team;

(b) "anomaly-based workshops" can be used to help experts address and enter into dialogue with each other about what they have learned from theory and experience regarding how to understand and deal with specific ill-defined, complex, and/or risky problems, issues, or concerns; and

(c) it is important for trainers of trainers to collaborate with trainers to develop ways of strengthening field experiences for novices.

Throughout this paper the author has emphasized the importance of making explicit, to the extent possible, knowledge and procedures which customarily have been left tacit not only in practice but also in in-service training and development of clinicians. Such training and development activities should be designed to transcend the "cult of silence" in the professions rather than perpetuating it.

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Adult Counselling; A Need, A Challenge and an Opportunity for Developing a New Discipline

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The Need

In an ever increasing complex world, where the adult encounters demands to adapt to and master major technological changes, where he will be called upon to engage in almost continuing retraining, where disruption in familial life patterns will be common and where he will find minimal familial and community sources of support and advice; in such an environment professional counselling on complex and often fateful decisions will become an ever increasing necessity. Today, two major sources of help are religious advice and varied forms of psychotherapy. The rapid rise of lay self help groups is but one indication of the dire need. Vocational and educational guidance can but partially fulfill specific needs at given times for very selected populations, but do not begin to touch the acute needs for adult counselling at times of planning goals in early adulthood, mid-life crises, prior and during retirement and throughout old age.

The need for adult counselling goes beyond the acute crises and critical stages in life detailed above. Both from their perspective of personal needs and for the improvement of society, adult counselling must be able to satisfy the need for personal growth, development, enhancement and self actualization. It must supply the advisory and counselling tools whereby individuals can sharpen their motivation to develop, acquire new skills, change life styles, become more inquisitive, change values and learn to find means of bringing joy and satisfaction to themselves and those around them.

Today, too many adults in modern society are denied the possibilities and challenges of making personal choices and acting upon them. They are the victims of social and economic circumstances, usually the consequences of the actions of the state, but in many instances are the direct results of their own actions, or more correctly their inactivity. This stems from lack of; skills, knowledge, motivation and positive attitudes in their social environment. Their prejudices, fears, habits and apprehension concerning changes in their lives deny them the right and privelege of living full and satisfying lives.

From the above it is apparent that there is an urgent need to conceptualize and develop a professional and highly complex entity, which for this presentation is being named "adult counselling". This proposed discipline will address the needs of individuals, families and groups for advice at various stages in their lives and during crises, as well as offering highly professional skills in enabling individuals and groups to enhance and attain increasing degrees of satisfaction within the cognitive affective and interpersonal aspects of their lives.

The Challenge

The true challenge is to fully investigate the needs of adults for advice, feedback, confirmation, clarification, reinforcement, conflict resolution, direction, making appropriate choices, reaching decisions, airing frustrations, obtaining updated reliable information, evaluating, planning reconciling, retrenching; to give but a sample of adults' true needs. Once we have a clear picture of what adults need at various sociological, educational, cultural and demographic levels, the challenge would be to survey the conceptual and theoretical frameworks associated with existing counselling practices that offer help and evaluate their degree of effectiveness. Can they be modified and applied to the needs of adult clients/consumers detailed above? Areas of therapy such as Post Traumatic Therapy, Family Systems Therapy, Paradoxical Intention, Cognitive Behaviour Therapy and Personal Constructs Therapy to mention but a few appear to have much to contribute in developing a cohesive and comprehensive approach to Adult Counselling. Beyond serving individual needs for self satisfaction and self actualization the true challenge is to incorporate in the core of Adult Counselling, sociological, community oriented and political concepts and theories, emphasising that the individual must act for the betterment of his ecological and societal environment if he himself is to benefit and develop.

We are not suggesting "reinventing the wheel" or "starting from scratch". There is no need to invest this new discipline with a novel theoretical base and invent skills and techniques as yet unknown. The methods of intervention and counselling have been with us for over 30 years. They do require a radical modification in order to be utilized within the central concept of this new discipline; "Adult Counselling". The true challenge is to depart from the pathological "patient" orientation, steeped in the medical tradition and move to a truly psycho-social educational, developmental model which sees the person as:

1) constantly seeking to better himself and his physical and societal environment

2) being in a constant state of change wrought by drives of curiosity and arousal (Berlyne 1966) or the impact of environmental and societal changes.

This central concept leans on Albert Bandura's extensive theorizing and research on "perceived self-efficacy in the exercise of personal agency" (A. Bandura, 1989) which states that: "People make causal contributions to their own psychosocial functioning through mechanisms of personal agency. Among the mechanisms of agency, none is more central or pervasive than people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over events that affect their lives."

The central concepts for Adult Counselling assume that given the appropriate tools for assimilating and evaluating information and knowing how to overcome inadequate decision making processes and conflicts, the adult can assume a large measure of control over his life and make appropriate choices that lead to satisfaction both for himself and to significant others.

In summary the challenge is to anchor this new discipline within the existing conceptual frameworks of psychology, education and sociology and develop and expand existing techniques of intervention and counselling to suit the needs of the "normal" adult client/consumer.

The Opportunity

It is evident that most university settings are engaged, to varying degrees, in offerring adult, "life long" and continuing education programmes. In many academic settings the commitment is marginal and is considered predominantly for its economic and fiscal benefits. Some academic institutions are in the forefront of curriculum development in adult education, are engaged in basic research and are committed to staff development and the training of adult educators. Counselling today is a discipline usually related to children and adolescents and finds its niche in Schools of Education, under such headings as School Counselling, Counselling Psychology or Educational and/or Vocational Guidance.

As universities become aware of their changing role in society and come to realize their central function in adult and continuing education, an opportunity presents itself for the development of a new discipline: Adult Counselling. Universities should be encouraged to design multidisciplinary departments, teaching at the doctoral and graduate levels but also offering diploma courses in guidance. In addition such departments should assume responsibility for the teaching, supervision and training of adult counsellors, setting high professional standards for this new profession. They must also engage in program evaluation and basic research. Such departments must have Adult Counselling Centers attached to them, where programs and counselling techniques can be tested, consultation to outside agencies offered and personnel involved in guidance activities can be trained and supervised.

To give some substance to the broad ideas above, we propose that a detailed graduate prgramme at the M.A. and Ph.D. levels be developed jointly between departments of education, psychology, anthropology, sociology and political sciences. These departments would need to cooperate in developing a core curriculum which would teach theories of human development, assessment skills, varied counselling techniques, advanced psychology courses in such areas as motivation, cognitive psychology, with special emphasis or decision making. Core courses in anthropology, sociology, health sciences, adult education and politicial theories as they relate to issues of empowerment would be offered. It is envisioned that the core courses would be taught over a two year period. The graduate programmes at both the M.A. and Ph.D levels would involve at least 15-20 hours per week of supervised practicum/internships in settings such as adult education centers, programmes for retirees, community centers and retirement settings, vocational assessment and counselling centers, employment settings, personnel departments in government and industry, etc.

A comprehensive applied research seminar paper or thesis would be a compulsory requirement at the M.A. level and a major theoretical and/or research thesis related to Adult Counselling be required for a doctoral degree. Such graduate departments of Adult Counselling could attract high calibre staff both from the field and within academia, who in the long run would establish criteria for accreditation both for their graduates and for their teaching and training settings.

Now is the time to create a professional multidiscipline: Adult Counselling, based on the solid grounding of Clinical Psychology, Adolescent Counselling, Developmental Psychology, Anthropology, Health Sciences, Sociology and Political Sciences. Adult Counselling can be "sold " to the general population as a "normal" necessity that can further their aims and better their lives. Universities and professional organizations need to be convinced and brought around to seeing the advantages to their institutions for such a discipline.

This conference offers an opportunity to initate a move in this direction. We propose that the conference send an "Open Letter" to a large number of Schools of Education throughout the world calling on them to participate in a "Planning Seminar" to begin to address the issues raised, concerning curriculum, academization and conceptual development of this new discipline. This Seminar (or perhaps a number of preliminary national or regional seminars could be called) would address a carefully planned agenda which would deal with such issues as departmental development, student recruitment and evaluation, accreditation and establishing common standards, to mention but a few.

We believe that the initiative to develop this "discipline" must be accepted as a challenge by a professional body that is convinced that there is a real need that can be correctly addressed in this manner and can in fact be implemented by these means.

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A Competency-Based Approach to Initial and Continuing Professional Education

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1. Introduction

Over the past few years many of the English speaking countries have initiated dramatic reforms in their educational systems. This is particularly the case in vocational education and in post compulsory education more generally, where attempts have been made to increase retention rates and to develop a more "relevant" work oriented curriculum for the majority of students. But it is also true of higher education where there have been attempts to develop a mass system, where this does not already exist, and to improve the quality of professional education .

I do not attempt in this paper to tackle the reasons for these reforms. Rather I want to take one aspect of these reforms which many of these countries have in common–the revival of competency based approaches to education. Specifically I want to examine how this development has begun to be worked out in Australia and to argue the case for the potential value of these reforms. Even more specifically I want to argue that contrary to the views of most educationalists, competency based approaches to curriculum and assessment have potential for a significant improvement in professional education and certification both initial and continuing.

The growth of the competency standards movement in Australian education over the last two years, is one of the most remarkable developments in recent educational history. From a point in 1990, where the phrase "competency standards" was practically unknown, competency based education has become the pre-eminent issue in all areas of education and training and increasingly the practice at least in vocational education and training. The competency movement in Australia is characterised by the development of national standards for all occupations and the agreement that all education and training will in some sense be based on these competencies. The system does allow for the development of enterprise standards but these should be within the national framework. It is unlikely that any educational movement has been so widely embraced by unions, business and governments (irrespective of political colour). Nor has any educational movement with the same potential to transform the practice of occupations and the preparation for them, been so poorly understood (and misrepresented) by policy makers, practitioners and academics/vocational teachers.

In Australia, the competency movement has important implications beyond education. It is linked with the industrial relations system and will thus affect, for example, career structures within occupations, remuneration, occupational registration requirements. It will also potentially affect the way occupations are perceived by the public and how they are regulated by public authorities.

What I would like to do in this paper is to:

- outline the arguments for the development of competency standards for occupations in general, and for the professions in particular,
- discuss the implications of competency standards for initial and continuing professional education particularly as it affects curriculum and teaching practices,
- outline a case study of the implementation of a competency based approach to specialist accreditation in the legal profession,
- consider briefly the implications of this approach for continuing professional education.

Before outlining arguments for and against competency standards generally, and for the professions and higher education in particular, I would like to outline a number of different ways of thinking about the competency movement. Unfortunately it is not widely recognised that more than one concept of competence exists. The result, is that many of those involved in the debate about the value of competency approaches, particularly as it relates to higher education, are at cross purposes.

2. Various concepts of competence

There are currently three major perspectives on the nature of competence being employed in the debate in Australia (and elsewhere).

- The first and probably the most widely held can be referred to as the task based or behaviourist approach. This approach conceptualises competence in terms of the discrete behaviours associated with the completion of atomised tasks. In effect the task becomes the competency, so that if a mechanic can replace a fuel pump or a teacher introduce a lesson s/he is said to posses the competency of fuel pump replacement or lesson introduction. This approach is unconcerned with the connections between the tasks and ignores the possibility that the coming together of tasks could lead to their transformation (the whole is not greater than the sum of the parts).

Evidence for the possession of the competency in this model is based on direct observation of performance.

Those who follow this approach tend to see the curriculum of education and training programs as being directly related to the behaviours/tasks specified in the occupation's competency standards. In Australia this approach has been adopted by some of the industries who first developed competency standards and is usually the model in people's minds when they attack the competency movement. (see below)

The weaknesses of this model are easy to enumerate. As Preston and Walker (In press) point out, *inter alia* it is reductionist, ignores underlying attributes, ignores group processes and their effect on performance, is conservative, a theoretical, and ignores the role of professional judgement in intelligent performance.

- The second model concentrates on the general attributes of the practitioner that are crucial to effective performance. Such an approach concentrates on the underlying attributes eg knowledge or critical thinking capacity, which provide the basis for transferable or more specific attributes. Thus the general attribute of thinking critically, it is assumed, can be applied to many or all situations. In this model, competencies are thought of as general attributes, ignoring the context in which they might be applied.

There are a number of problems with this approach. First, there is no certainty that generic competencies actually exist. The evidence from the novice/expert research and from the critical thinking literature suggests that expertise (high levels of competence) is domain specific. Second, these general attributes are of limited help for those involved in the practical work of designing education and training programs which may wish to develop specific attributes or who may wish to think about the relationship between the general attributes and actual professional performance. It is interesting (but I would not want to make too much of it) that there is not a high correlation between those who do best on traditional university assessments (which concentrate on general attributes) and those who become the best practitioners of their profession.

- The third approach seeks to marry the general attributes approach to the context in which these attributes will be employed. This approach looks at the complex combinations of attributes (knowledge attitudes and skills) which are used in combination to understand the particular situation in which professionals find themselves. That is, the notion of competence is relational. It brings together disparate things–abilities of individuals (deriving from combinations of attributes) and the tasks that need to be performed in particular situations. Thus competence is conceived of as complex structuring of attributes needed for intelligent performance in specific situations. Obviously it incorporates the idea of professional judgement.

In this model evidence for the possession of competencies must come from a variety of sources and must adopt a judgemental or probabilistic model (Masters 1993), based on a legal rather than a scientific paradigm.

The relationship between competency standards and educational curriculum in this approach is far more flexible than in the behaviourist model and more rigorous than in the general attributes model. The relationship is one of overall coherence of the education program and the competency structures of the occupation (Preston and Walker ibid). There is the opportunity, if curriculum is conceived in this way, to overcome some of the fragmentation and lack of integration that currently characterise most of the initial education and training of professionals.

The integrated or holistic approach is the one which is underpinning the work in developing competency standards that has occurred over the past few years in the professions in Australia, yet most of the arguments against competency standards assumes the behaviourist approach is the one which underpins the competency movement.

3. Some arguments for and against competency standards

For

- In Australia, a competency-based standards (CBS) system is seen to be the best way of implementing the ideas behind workplace reform and award restructuring. It potentially enables competence achieved in any way to be recognised i.e. not only that gained through formal qualifications. This allows maximum use of the skills present in the community, enabling people to undertake work at an appropriate level, not one determined by formal awards alone.

- A CBS system established by the tripartite industry advisory committees (and the professions) will give clear guidelines to all who provide training and should ensure greater relevance of vocational and professional education to industry/community's needs.
- CBS can help to maintain public confidence in all occupations from trade level to professional level, i.e. entry to an occupation, and continued competence are seen to be based on clear public standards.
- International developments such as the UNESCO convention on recognition of studies, the closer economic relationship with New Zealand, and the GATT negotiations, have implications for all occupational levels as foreigners increasingly seek to work in Australia and Australians overseas. CBS provide a sound basis to begin negotiations for reciprocal agreements.
- By focusing on competence regardless of how it may have been developed, competency-based standards will help certain groups whose skills may not at present receive due recognition. Some overseas qualified workers believe that Australia's current entry procedures rely too much on testing for knowledge. A move to competency-based testing would make for a more valid testing procedure

Against

There is not space to outline these arguments in any detail. In summary the arguments are all concerned with the behaviourist conception outlined above. [see for example, Magnusson and Osborne (1990), Field (1991), Ashworth and Saxton (1990)]. When one uses a broader conception of competence it is not possible to sustain the criticisms of reductionism and political conservatism which is at the core of the criticism.

4. Relevance of the above arguments for the professions

Arguments for

It could be argued that many of the arguments in favour of competency standards outlined above, apply even more strongly to the professions.

- So far as the issue of public confidence goes, in some professions at least the need to retain (or regain or develop) the confidence of the public is more urgent than it is for non professional occupations. While it is dangerous to single out one or two profession in this regard, some recent developments in the legal profession may help to illustrate the case for developing competency standards.

Other arguments for a competency standards may have appeal to those outside the professions

- the growth and specialisation of knowledge have profound implications for the working of a democratic society. As knowledge becomes more specialised fewer people are capable of making informed decisions about public policy. Of course it has been suggested that the professions have much to gain from this and that they have sought to mystify their practice and knowledge. Competency standards have the potential to at least give the general public a basic understanding of the practice of professions and thus enable them to make informed judgements
- International developments suggest that the fastest growth in international trade will be in the area of professional services. Here competency standards could be at least a sound basis for negotiation

5. Development of competency standards in the professions

Despite the obvious controversy surrounding the application of competency standards to the professions in Australia there are currently over 20 professions which have developed competency standards or are in the process of doing so. Some have begun to develop assessment strategies. The anecdotal evidence from the professions themselves, at least at the level of their representatives, is that the development of competency standards has been very useful in giving them a clearer idea of the scope of their work and what constitutes good practice, clarifying the relationships with other professions, potentially providing a more rational basis for initial and continuing education and for assessment for registration.

6. Impact of the Competency Movement on Professional Education

Curriculum

Currently the typical preparation of a professional has three aspects : The development of general, assumed to be generalisable, knowledge, development of professional knowledge and experience on the job. There is a great deal of variability as to how well these aspects are integrated in educational programs. While there has been recently a good deal of interest in the role of the practicum (the experience aspect) and how it can be related to the other stages there is still a good deal to be learnt about how to bring these aspects together into a coherent whole. I don't think it is unfair to suggest that most universities have put their emphasis on the first two of these aspects and assumed that the mere provision of experience will enable the student to make the connections between theory and the world of practice.

The implications of the integrated approach to competence outlined earlier, is that curriculum should aim to integrate the three aspects of professional preparation into a coherent whole. There are many ways in which this might be done.

One way is through a problem based curriculum, which is now well established in a range of fields of professional practice and a large number of universities internationally.

I will outline briefly the nature of a problem based curriculum in order to try to outline some of the advantages of an integrated competency based approach to curriculum.

Problem based education has its genesis in the health sciences. What it seeks to do is to take the real problems faced by health professionals as the starting point of the curriculum.

It is usually characterised by the following features:

- Using materials which simulate real life (or are actually real life situations in some occupations)
- Resources are available to help the students to clarify the problems and deal with them.
- Students work co-operatively with access to a tutor
- One problem at a time is tackled as compared with subject based courses where many things are attempted at the same time.

There are many examples of problem based curricula which do not have all of these features. Nevertheless, all of them must have a commitment to the notion of real problems and not to the Discipline as the basis of the curriculum.

Obviously this starting point is similar to that of the competency movement which asks what are the things that people need to really do to be regarded as competent and (if it is conceptualised in the way I suggest) what attributes are needed to enable these to be done. The difference seems to be that the competency movement has concentrated on a detailed analysis of the profession/occupation while the problem based learning movement have been motivated by what it feels is the best learning practices and assumed that certain competencies are needed (particularly the higher order competencies) without the analysis. Both should however end up at the same point since what they aim at is the competent practitioner–who, amongst other things, is a problem solver, critical thinker, lifelong learner. Each movement may have something to learn from the other–the competency movement the importance of the higher order competencies and the PBL movement, the need for a more systematic analysis of the occupation on which to base the problem.

Boud and Feletti (1992) claim a number of reasons why such problem based curricula have generated interest over recent years.

- They take account of how learners learn. What we know about learning, particularly for adults, suggests this is more effective than subject based approaches.
- Learning how to learn, which is at the base of this approach, is more important than assimilation of knowledge. Thus the method allows for life long learning which is essential for most occupations during a period of continuous change.
- Practitioners feel that this method is much more valid than a discipline based approach.
- It is more flexible than other methods.

There are presumably many other ways of developing a coherent integrated curriculum. The important thing that these curriculum methods will have in common, in contrast to a behaviourist curriculum, is that they will not be directly developing competencies as outlined in a set of competency standards. The competency standards will be the backdrop to the curriculum.

Assessment

The impact of competency based approaches on assessment practices of higher education are potentially very significant. If higher education adopts an integrated competency approach to their curriculum, such as for example the problem based approaches outlined earlier, then assessment will be concentrated much more than is traditional, on a variety of performances. There will a greater emphasis on the application and synthesis of knowledge, and an attempt to consider the role of other attributes in professional judgements. This leads ultimately to a greater integration of the theoretical and practical which is at the heart of successful professional practice.

7. Case study; The legal profession and the implications of a competency approach to continuing education.

In 1991 the NSW Law Society began the process of developing a specialist accreditation scheme for solicitors in NSW. The stated aims of the program are to aid the public and the profession by: 'offering the public and the profession a way of identifying solicitors with special competence in an area of practice, encouraging improvements in the quality and cost of legal services and provide practitioners with incentives and opportunities to improve competence in areas of practice'.

At the time of developing these laudable aims there had been little thought given to how they might be implemented. Originally it was felt that it would be enough to base specialist assessment on:

- a system of peer evaluation,
- an examination set by the Board and
- the need to undertake some specified amount of continuing education.

I mean no disrespect to the profession when I say that this thinking was relatively unsophisticated. The fact is, that it is fairly typical of the thinking of most professions so far as assessment and continuing education is concerned. This reflects the general belief in many professions that experienced practitioners know what is needed for competent performance at all levels of practice, that is does not need to be articulated and that it is largely a matter of testing whether a practitioner has sufficient knowledge of the discipline–some of this knowledge being presumably picked up through attending mandatory continuing education courses.

Fortunately, in my view, ways of implementing this scheme were being considered at the time that the debate on professions and competence was beginning. The Law Society's specialist Board decided to develop a set of competency standards for each of the areas of speciality and to base the assessment and continuing education on these performance standards.

The standards that have been developed are based on the integrated non behaviourist model of competence outlined at the beginning of this paper.

In Family Law, for example, the standards consist of 6 'units' of competence and 16 'elements' in total. The units are :

1. **Develops relationship with client,**
2. **Gathers and assesses facts and instructions,**
3. **Plans timetable and course of action,**
4. **Implements plan,**
5. **Acts as an advocate,**
6. **Completes matter.**

The performance criteria for the 16 elements are holistic, described standards which incorporate complex combinations of attributes. For example the second unit in the competency standards is **Gathers and assesses facts and instructions.**

One of the elements is "taking instructions from the client". The performance criteria includes the following :

When taking instructions the specialist...displays thoroughness persistence and awareness of relevance. The solicitor structures the process to assist the client to develop a history and obtains from the client an initial statement. This would include the nature of the problem, what the client wishes to achieve, the clients account of the relevant facts, the position of children and any relevant third parties and a view of the opponent's position. The solicitor draws the clients attention to any gaps or inconsistencies and checks the instructions with the client...the solicitor canvasses the question of costs (and) deals with any ethical issues arising from the instructions and keeps a clear record of the instructions

In unit 1. **Develops relationship with client**, one of the elements is 'listens effectively to client'. The performance criteria is:

...the solicitor is able to perceive the client's immediate needs regarding safety children and the financial situation.

The other element is: 'communicates clearly and appropriately'.
The performance criteria includes,

asks effective questions and interacts with the clients in supportive way...adopts a non discriminatory attitude and uses plain language to communicate ...

After the development of the standards the panel of experts in family law set about devising an assessment strategy.

Four methods of assessment were developed:

- a written test,
- a simulation,
- a mock file, and
- review/refereeing by peers.

The decision to use this combination of methods was based on the three main assessment principles outlined above:

- the use of the **integrated methods** ie those which assess as many of the competencies as possible in the one assessment event
- the use of **direct methods** which are faithful to the performance in the real world
- the use of a **variety of methods** and the gathering of a range evidence on which a judgement can be based.

I will deal in detail with two of these assessment methods, the simulation and the mock file because they are relatively unusual examples of performance assessment.

The simulation

The development of a relationship with the client as reflected in the taking of initial instructions was identified as one of the distinguishing features of the family law practice. This relationship depends on the possessions of a range of competencies associated with: communication, gathering evidence, with ethical principles, with ability to assess facts. These are found in a units 1 and 2 of the standards. Thus the simulation was developed after elements and performance criteria were grouped from a number of units.

Six role plays were developed. While depicting men and women and different situations and problems, all had the same structure: an immediate need, long term issues, information not disclosed unless questions asked, client's hidden agenda, presentation of a problems that required non legal solutions and others of a religious/cultural nature that required sensitive handling, an ethical issue, query on costs.

Each applicant interviewed a trained 'actor' a mature law student) for up to 60 minutes, the role plays were videotaped and assessed by a group of assessors who had undertaken a training session. In this training, common faults of assessment were discussed and a number of videos were viewed and agreement reached on what would constitute adequate and superior performance. There were three levels of performance: failure to meet the standards, meeting the standards, and easily meeting the standards. Rating scales were developed to try to increase interassessor reliability.

For example, for *communication* **poor performance** was described as: "does not allow client to talk freely, listens poorly, repeats questions, poor eye contact, ignores body language uses only closed questions, does not reflect paraphrase or summarise". **Very good** performance was: "asks effective questions to encourage the client to talk freely. listens attentively, maintains eye contact, uses open body language, uses plain language, manages clients emotions, reflects paraphrases and summarises".

For the *gathering of information* **poor performance** was described as: "haphazard, no awareness of relevance, sequence of events not established, inadequate information elicited". **Good performance** included: "questioning persistent, adopts methods to test reality of the clients statements, etc".

The mock file

This file is a take home assessment which outlines a set of legal problems associated with a complex divorce case.

This consists of two elements: the first dealing with the drafting of documents. This section assesses the applicants ability to properly present the case including a knowledge of the courts rules/procedures, ability to prepare documents in clear language. The second deals with a very complex matter which requires considerable research, ability to undertake a legal analysis and to develop a plan and options. It assess a number of competencies from a number of units. Typical files presented to the assessors were 30 pages in length.

In the other areas of specialist accreditation, other assessment methods have been devised including such things as a mock trial for criminal law specialists.

In summary, the legal specialist board has developed an assessment scheme that is much more valid that the traditional legal exam. It is a good example of competency based assessment which is integrated, direct and which gathers a good deal of evidence on which to base a judgement.

Implications of the development of competency standards for continuing professional education.
Currently, mandatory continuing legal education(MCLE) often consists of the practitioner attending lectures given by experts in areas of change in the law.

The development of competency standards should lead to a reconsideration of the nature of such MCLE. Some thoughts:

- While legal knowledge will remain the foundation of competent practice, the ability to apply it in a variety of often difficult contexts should be taken into account. A knowledge of the law will not be enough to enable specialists to help an emotional divorcee from an unfamiliar culture worried about access. Thus it will be desirable that MCLE should be based on the standards.
- While the current MCLE is rather disjointed, the competency standards should lead to the development of coherent curricula which seek to develop particular knowledge skills and values and how these are applied in real contexts. That is more thought will be given to the integration of on the job and off the job learning.
- This should lead to the development of skill courses which combine knowledge with skills, in addition to the traditional courses in legal knowledge.
- There should also be the development of courses that take account of both experiential learning and learning in context. Communication and negotiation competencies in family law for example, take place in particular contexts and take special forms. This might lead to the development of mentoring systems where less experienced practitioners are teamed with more experienced in a number of family law contexts–courts, welfare organisations, law firms.
- There could also be the development of case study material like the simulations outlined above, which could be worked on through distance materials and/or in study groups or with learning partners. Developments of communications technologies have made a variety of distance learning strategies feasible but these are rarely used in CPE.

What all this means for those involved in the training and development of continuing professional educators is quite clear. A moving beyond an update model, a concentration on adult learning principles and practices, the development of coherent integrated competency based curricula and assessment practices and an involvement in research which develops a practice model of professional work.

8. Conclusion

I would argue that a competency based approach to initial and continuing professional education has considerable advantages over current approaches:

- It brings together the ways in which knowledge, skills, attitudes and other capacities are actually used in specific contexts. That is, it goes beyond the limitations of the positivist epistemology which has characterised much of the debate on professional education generally and continuing education in particular. It acknowledges the role of professional artistry and moves in the direction of developing what Schön (1983) had called an epistemology of practice for the professions.
- It has the capacity to be understood by all the identified stakeholders in professional education and to enable them to actually participate in the process of evaluation of its quality. It is interesting to note that the various discussion about the quality of professional education in many countries accept the fact that there are stakeholders but make little attempt to suggest how they might be involved in the process of evaluating quality.
- It will encourage the demystification of many professional fields and make knowledge accessible to the wider community. This has the potential to aid in the development of knowledge and in its application to the solution of community problems.
- It provides strong guidance on improvements to teaching, curriculum and assessment procedures in professional education. professions.

Competency approaches have the potential to break the long standing and destructive dichotomy between theory and practice which has characterised educational thinking for a long time. This will help break down the unfortunate dichotomy between vocational education and general education which has led to the distinctions between manual/ mental, body/mind, theory/practice, applied/pure etc, characteristic of some western societies. These distinctions have lead to the devaluing of the practical which manifests itself amongst other things in the rejection of middle level vocational education despite the fact that there is a likely need for more middle level workers in the future.

By encouraging educators to think about integrated approaches to the training of professionals, competency approaches have the potential for strengthening the relationship between professions and higher education institutions. While is it difficult to generalise about this, it is fair to say that this relationship varies enormously across professions and institutions. In Australia the competency movement has already led to academics and practitioners cooperating in the development of competency standards in some professions at both entry and higher levels. It may lead to co-operation between professions and universities which improve all levels of professional education and assessment by integrating more effectively all its three elements. This also has the potential to help the professions to see more clearly the boundaries limitations and inadequacies of current practice and value more than currently the role of research into professional practice.

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Theory and Practice in the Curriculum Preparing Educators of Adults

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INTRODUCTION AND DEFINITIONS

Theory and practice in the preparation of educators of adults have seldom been addressed in the same places or time frames. In fact, Devlin (1939) distinctly separates theory and practice by definition: "Theory is a doctrine or scheme of things which terminates in speculation or contemplation without a view to practice;" (p. 1732) and; "Practice is actual performance distinguished from theory." (p. 1291). Although these are general definitions, Jarvis' (1990: 338) definitions from an adult educator's perspective coincide with these above. However, he further separates the two, asserting that theory focuses on knowledge that comes from theoretical analysis, and practice focuses on knowledge that arises from emperical evidence through the senses.

Needless to say, with this separation between theory and practice there have been few attempts, in the general field of adult education as well as specifically in the preparation of adult educators, to bring theory and practice together in any coherent way. Nevertheless, expressions of concern and discontent abound from adults, both adult educators and the general adult populace involved in learning experiences, which imply, if not directly assert the importance of addressing this. These expressions take the form of: "Why do adult educators violate everything they know about how adults learn?" or, "Why don't we adult educators practice on ourselves what we theorize about how adults learn?" or, "Why should I stay in that session and tolerate being talked 'down to' like a little child?" or, "Please, no more long lectures!" or, "I want to 'actively participate' in learning rather than just 'passively receive' teaching!"

However, the separateness of theory and practice by their definitions, juxtaposed with the concerns and discontent on their separateness in actual practice, may not be enough justification to warrant making a connection. After all, in fairness, there are many positive comments and evaluations that are made on adult education programs as they are currently being conducted. But there is another aspect to this paper which could help justify bridging the gap. This paper is to be limited to a curriculum based discussion about the theory and practice of the preparation of educators of adults. Consequently, a definition of curriculum may shed some additional light on the possibility of a connection between theory and practice being needed.

Curriculum in general is considered to be (Devlin 1939: 414) applied particularly to the course of study in a university, college, or school. Jarvis (1990: 89) in relating the curriculum to adult education, finds denial of adult education having a curriculum as well as identification of curriculum with the term programme. He does suggest that curriculum tends to mean the entire range of learning experiences provided by an educational institution.

A much clearer articulation of the particulars which "learning experiences" encompass is given by Knoll (1989, in Titmus: 29) using the German Education Council definition that curriculum means the organized arrangement of learning processes and content with regard to certain aims and objectives which include techniques, behavior or type and degree of certain skills and aptitudes, or of knowledge. This could imply and prompt such questions as: which knowledge, understanding, aptitudes, skills, interests, attitude, value and behavior pattern is this "learner--who is an educator of adults in preparation" to acquire? With which subject matter and content is this "learner" to be confronted? What is the "learner" to learn? When and where is this "learner" to learn? How are this "learner's " needs to be determined? By which learning steps and techniques, in which manner, with the aid of which materials is this "learner" to learn? How is the attainment of the aims and objectives by this "learner" to be determined? It could be assumed that to answer these questions will necessitate knowing various theories and schools of thought which will inform the selection of the very best practices or learning/teaching techniques which the educator of adults has at his/her command and level of competency.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

One of the earliest references outlining the preparation of educators of adults (Houle, in Jensen 1964: 69-83) makes no mention of a connection between theory and practice. In the standards for graduate adult education programs which appeared in 1986 (Brookfield 1988: 234-241) the connection is very loosely made by indicating that the full-time adult education faculty member needs a continuing commitment to adult education theory, research, and knowledge of current practice. It should be noted that no connection between theory and practice in the faculty classroom behavior is indicated or required.

Comparing university adult education in England and the USA, (Taylor 1985: Preface) theory and practice are mentioned regarding the liberal school of thought in relation to the general field of adult education with no reference to preparing educators of adults. Knapper (1985: 106-120) outlines some innovative instructional methods which could be practiced by educators of adults thought by some to be consistent with adult learning theories that emphasize a high degree of learner participation. Although Bright (1989: Title) addresses the theory and practice issue, the argument is limited to the study of adult education in its relationship to epistemology. Usher (1989: Title) takes the view that theory and practice are not inextricably connected, but in a captive triangle with research. His argument is directed toward the adult education field in general, but can be applied to preparing educators of adults.

Moreover, McCullough (1987: 53) supports the connection by indicating that the professional development of an adult educator/trainer will be greatly advanced by letting others know what competencies (which are identified by the theory) you are trying to improve and asking for feedback on your progress. Collins (1991: 21-39) on the other hand, argues that the preparation of educators of adults is not helped by the current obsession with technique without the vocational commitment to engagement in critical, ethical, and political issues. Outlining the changing relationships between theory and practice during nearly thirty years, Cervero (1991, in Peters: 19-41) asserts that currently there is a great disparity between theory and practice in preparing educators of adults, frustrating practitioners while at the same time concerning theoreticians.

Perhaps the earliest published statement of support for a theory and practice alliance in preparing educators of adults came from Knowles in 1962 (1991, in Dixon: 18-19) and (1988, in Brookfield: 43-49) with the publication of A General Theory of the Doctorate in Education. The purpose of the theory would provide guidelines for the development of a program (curriculum) for each degree. This theory was later enhanced (fleshed-out) and implemented by Knowles in the graduate programs in preparing adult educators at both Boston University and North Carolina State University. A few specific enhancements were published on Knowles' theory of andragogy--which he defines as the art and science of helping adults learn (1980: 1-63), competency rating scale (1990: 236-243), and self-directed learning (1975: 1-135). Beyond the publications, Knowles, the adult educator, seemed to exemplify as a co-learner and a facilitator of learning in others, the theory and practice connection in the curriculum he developed for preparing educators of adults.

The ideas of how adults learn which were included, but not limited to these statements, said that adults have a desire and capacity for: Actively participating in the learning process, being treated as "grown-ups" instead of as "children", engaging in a variety of experiential learning techniques, discussion time being allotted in conjunction with a lecture if one is given, interaction with others in small groupings that helps them internalize information, hands-on practice, opportunity for each to share his/her expertise with others, raising questions about and exploring problems and various possibilities of practical application, self-directedness in learning, knowing exactly what step to take next in learning, innovation, excitement to carry a new idea forward, openness to new insights, an attitude of caring about what happens to students, clarity about differences between process and content; in short, meeting the adult learners' learning needs as they perceive and understanding them, as well as congruence between saying and doing in education: i.e. making the medium and the message coincide.

A CASE EXAMPLE

Cervero (1991, in Peters: 36) points out that although the relationship between theory and practice is an issue that will not be resolved, we should set our sights on understanding and being critical of the circumstances that shape our actions about this issue. Thus, it could help clarify for the reader, the viewpoint of this author, to state that he received his doctorate in adult education at Boston University during Knowles' years there. Additionally, what will be presented regarding this influence supports the axiom that we teach how we have been taught. Consequently, the remainder of this paper is not intended to and will not resolve the relationship of theory and practice in the preparing of educators or adults. However, this paper is meant to be descriptive of some ways which one person prepared as an educator of adults in the

1960's, has "played out" this relationship in the nearly three subsequent decades with the stated point of view, without trying to speak for others and their varying perspectives on the theory and practice connection. Thus, what follows includes not only the ideas on how adults learn set forth in the last paragraph of the previous section, but also will add special ideas applied and used in each program described.

The contextual setting of this adult educator's perspective is in his dual role as a continuing learner of how to become an educator of adults and as a facilitator of helping others become educators of adults. He has a split appointment position, at the University of Missouri, of Associate Professor of Education with masters and doctoral adult education students at the St. Louis campus, and Continuing Education Specialist in University Extension serving the individual and organizational learning needs of the general adult population. The University Extension position has been fulfilled in both rural and urban Missouri.

The earliest and most effective educational and innovative experiences of this educator of adults becoming a faculty member with University Extension was to participate in an inservice education orientation program for a seven week period. It was highly individualized. One could "shadow" other specialists as they worked and daily operationalized the role of University Extension faculty. Theory and practice were congruent. It was preparatory to the process that would be expected when one worked in the field setting in a very self-directed manner to implement her/his own ideas. This became a viewpoint expressed by Pinchot (1985: 22) when describing an entrepreneur, in which he suggested, that the one excited about an idea be responsible to carry it forward in the organization. However, this was counter to the apparent viewpoint of Hays (1993: 173-186) when she seems to question the appropriateness of educators confronting learners with that kind of responsibility without having first determined their stage of readiness. However, Knowles (1975: 31-38) emphasized that in his redefining the role of teacher, from content transmitter to facilitator of self-directed learning, he was in charge of the process, instead of the content, and would make decisions about procedures when the students couldn't, as well as helping them learn to take more responsibility for their learning.

During the first year of University Extension work, participation by this educator of adults in a program planning conference was required. The most striking part was a presentation on "The Forty-Seven Principles of Adult Learning", and the presenter violated every one of them. It seemed like the message was, "Do as I say, not as I do". Reischmann (1993: Forthcoming) in arguing for maintaining pedagogy and against instituting andragogy states, "The blames made against pedagogy often blame a poor practice, not a poor theory. In theories I have never read that learners should be treated childishly, dependent, not respected." That is just the point this author is arguing against: make theory and practice congruent; model the theory to the greatest possible extent in every situation.

One of University Extension's educational goals consistent with adult learning theory is to develop programs/curriculums which respond to the needs of the adult people being served. Consequently, when rural nurse educators asked if they could have help with developing quality health care continuing education programs that would meet state relicensure requirements, the response of this educator of adults was to try. The result was that from 1975 to 1977 a need assessment and program development was conducted and a local steering committee of nurse educators was established. From 1977 to the present forty-eight one day workshops on different topics have been conducted in northwest Missouri which meet the criteria originally asked. The workshops draw an average attendance of sixty-eight and draw participants not only from Missouri, but Iowa, Kansas and Nebraska as well. The steering committee mechanism for planning and implementing has continued to function, despite the Continuing Education Specialist moving away and another University Extension specialist taking up the responsibility of helping the nurses/health care educator professionals obtain their goals. (Henschke, 1988: 52-57)

One day in the late 1970's a member of the Superior General's Council of a local Roman Catholic Convent of fifty-five sisters headquartered in northwest Missouri contacted this author to ask if they could obtain University Extension help with a planning conference. The Superior General and Council fulfill the teaching, leadership, and management functions for the remainder of the convent. This request was during the era of the downward trend in convent enrollments. As we probed the purpose for the inquiry, survival of the convent in the future was the real question on their minds, since their average age was increasing with no new entrants in more than a decade. We established an educational consulting relationship. Various educational events and consultations were held which lasted for seventy-five days over a two and one-half year period. Self-directed learning, self-determination, organizational decision-making, conflict resolution, leadership, and becoming intentional were major topics which were worked through with their General Council as well as total group. The most important concern on this consultant's mind was what Dirkx calls, the tacit dimension of practical knowledge (1986, in Henschke, 1987b: 419), and Henschke (1987b: 420) describes as knowing what needs to be done in this specific situation to take the next step which will carry the learning forward. The result for the convent was the formation of a new, vibrant, forward looking convent with a group of sisters they had broke away from fifty years previously.

In the early 1980's, this author was named associate professor of education in the adult education area at the University of Missouri-St. Louis. Responsibilities include teaching graduate courses on preparing educators of adults, guiding and chairing masters' and doctoral students' programs, researching and publishing, as well as providing service to the university and the community. The courses taught regularly in rotation are: Foundations of Adult Education, Improvement of Instruction in Adult Education, and Curriculum Theory and Development in Adult Education. Classes are competency based (Henschke, In Dixon, 1991: 9). Learning contracts are used (Knowles, 1975: 62-63). The classes are live laboratories for learning using various adult learning techniques to involve all the class interactively as illustrated by the genre of Leypoldt (1967: 1-125) and many other sources, based and generated in research and/or practice (Rose, in Henschke, 1992a, 10), (Henschke, 1987a: 55-61). The schools of thought or educational philosophies guiding the class processes are a mixture of humanistic, progressive, radical, behavioristic, liberal, and analytic (Elias, 1980: 1-12), in that order of emphasis. There is a high degree of trust in the learning abilities of the students (Henschke, 1989: 81-87). A critique by and feedback from students is always requested at the completion of each semester course to identify suggestions for improvement which are implemented the next time the course is offered (McCullough, 1987: 53).

Conversations with adult education colleagues have resulted in debates whether it is appropriate to put into practice the adult learning theories in university graduate courses, resulting in such comments as: "This is a university, you can't do that here; other professors would not tolerate our doing this; and, academic rigor would be sacrificed." (also Hays, 1993: 173-186). Discussions with professors in the Department of Educational Studies, where adult education is placed at the University of Missouri-St. Louis, have resulted in the conclusion that no quality or rigor need be or is sacrificed as adult learning principles are practiced in the graduate courses. In fact, the adult learning theories are in concert with and supported by the school of education's official knowledge base statement which is required to be included in all course syllabi. The statement reads, "Teacher-A lifelong learner who creates learning settings where students are guided to construct meaning in concert with the teacher and other learners." Some results of long term impact evaluations (Henschke, 1990: 61) from past participants in the adult education graduate program indicate, but are not limited to, such gains as: New skill, new insights from hearing experts and other students, increased thinking ability, increased personal confidence, and greater satisfaction from the people they serve.

All of the elements included in the University of Missouri graduate adult education programs above, are also part of other credit and non-credit programs conducted by this author in the preparing of educators of adults in other contexts with some special additions and adaptations for each situation.

A credit course on Foundations of Adult Basic Education was offered on video satellite nationally over a two and one-half month time period in 1990 with thirty-nine enrolling from eight states. An interactive element was added by interspersing four-one hour audio telephone conferences for participants to discuss various learnings and applications of the course content in their own settings. Five percent of the telephone time was occupied by the professor asking questions of the participants regarding how they were applying the course in their work contexts as educators of adults. This five percent generated response and interaction among them as well as interchange of ideas to their benefit professionally, which occupied twenty-four percent of the telephone time. (Lane 1990: 89-93).

Seminars and conference sessions focusing on adult learning have been provided for both full and part time educators of adults. These have been of various lengths: From forty-five minutes up to four hours. They have been implemented with adult basic educators, nurse educators, educational developers in church international ministries, church educational leaders in eight countries on three continents, and conferees at state, regional, national and international conferences. Without exception, the sessions designed and conducted to include both adult learning theory and practice of the theory, received positive feedback from participants on giving attention to both aspects (Henschke, 1992a&b: All pages). A major suggestion for those adult educators who would desire to move in the direction of making their theory and practice congruent is this: Make the commitment, identify how you will link theory and practice in each situation, stay the course, don't look back, but move forward.

An advanced graduate credit course on Methods and Techniques for Teaching Adults was conducted in 1991 with professional adult educators on a telephone network with sixty-five people at twenty-two locations in one state. The interactive element was assured (no interaction on a teleconference equals grinding learning to a halt!) with twelve groups forming to make presentations which required each group to involve the full class actively (not passively) in the presentation/learning experience. Incidentally, they "pulled it off."

A graduate credit course on Teaching Adults in University Extension was provided by this educator of adults in 1991 & 1992 to University Extension personnel in two states in two different formats: A four-weekend, consecutively on Friday nights and all day Saturdays; and, four consecutive days in one week and three consecutive days two months later. Each format worked equally well and the subject matter was applicable in both contexts.

A credit course was offered, by a team of this and another educator of adults, within a prison on preparing adult literacy tutors who are prison residents to function as tutors with other inmates. The twenty-four participants effectively took active responsibility for their own learning and had no difficulty in supporting each other in the process (Henschke & Perry, 1989: 89-95).

Two different non-credit forty-hour inservice education courses on Methods and Techniques for Teaching Adults were conducted by this educator of adults with adult educators in Brazil: Forty participants in 1985, and twenty participants in 1991. Each group also participated in the design of their course (Henschke, 1987b: 414-422). Their perceptions at the beginning of its not being in touch with their reality, changed to their feeling at the conclusion that each course was very relevant to them and their real world.

A video-conference series of ten four-hour sessions on Total Quality Management was conducted with forty-four participants from twenty-three corporations located within a major metropolitan area. An interactive element managed by various facilitators was added to allow discussion time and time for sharing ideas for local applications throughout the sessions. This educator of adults trained the facilitators. Evaluation by the video-conference session participants indicated the most beneficial aspect of the series was the interaction among the people from various corporations which generated ideas to use as well as apply in their own work settings.

It is interesting to note that in the conference where an earlier version of this paper was presented,the structure of the paper presentation sessions supported theory and practice congruence. Instructions given to paper presenters by the conference organizers included: you have ninety minutes for your session; don't read the full text of your paper to your session participants; take five to ten minutes at most to present a capsule of what your paper says; then, let discussion occupy the remaining time. This author wondered if that would work. For his own session as well as sessions of other author/presenters he attended, much to his delight the full time was occupied by productive interaction. Even more time for each session could have been beneficial. It certainly exemplified the notion that adults value active participation in their learning experiences.

SUMMARY

This paper has provided clarification of the terms theory, practice, and curriculum relating to adult education. It has also addressed the issue of theory and practice connection regarding the curriculum of preparing educators of adults; traced some historical background of this issue which some think will not be resolved, and, provided a case illustration of how one educator of adults, prepared in an academic curriculum not only supportive of the theory and practice connection, but also advocated congruence between the two. In addition, the case illustration describes how that educator of adults worked on the theory and practice issue in his professional context as he has continued to learn as well as facilitate the preparation of educators of adults. In closing, it highlights the theory and practice congruence insisted on, in the structure of the paper sessions, by the conference organizers where an earlier version of this paper was presented. Whether this will add to the discussion and clarification of the issue remains to be seen. However, others are invited and encouraged to share in and contribute to the ongoing debate by verbal means as well as written publication.

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Developing Professionals for Adult Education in Flanders

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In the book "Training Adult Educators in Western Europe" edited by Peter Jarvis and Alan Chadwick (1991: 15-22), I described the training of adult educators in Belgium. For a good understanding of what is going on in this field, I have to return to the subject of adult education and the training of adult educators in Flanders.

From this year on (1993) Belgium is a federal State. Flanders is the Dutch speaking region in the North of Belgium. From the ten million people living in Belgium, about 60% live in Flanders. Since 1970 the French-speaking part and the Dutchspeaking part of Belgium (and also the German-speaking) have full authority concerning the cultural matters, including education and training. Now, the three Communities are developing their own educational policy.

Belgium has a long tradition in adult education. It was industrialised quite early in the nineteenth century. Evening and Sunday schools were mentioned in the first laws concerning primary and vocational education in 1842. Schooling for adults, since 1970 known as "schooling for social promotion," is still a very important segment of adult education.

1. The landscape of adult education.

At the moment, the following main sectors can be distinguished:

a. Adult education in the school system
  - Education for social promotion (evening and weekend schools);
  - Adult Basic Education;
  - Second chance education;
  - Distance education;
  - Open Higher Education;
  - Central examinations;

b. Vocational training subsidised by the ministry for Employment :
  - Training and re-training for the unemployed;
  - Training for shopkeepers and trades people (SME's);
  - Training for agricultural workers.

c. Socio-cultural education (community education or liberal education);

d. Vocational training in profit- and non-profit organisations;

e. Commercial education and others.

1.1. Adult education as a part of the school system.

In the evening and weekend colleges (schools for social-promotion) adults can follow language courses and vocational training. In some colleges there are also second chance courses. These colleges use the accommodation of the dayschools. The courses are organised in accordance with the regular school system. The level corresponds to junior, secondary and higher education. The duration of a course ranges from two to three years. There are also short courses and since 1988 there are courses in a modular form. The idea is growing to reorganise them all in this form. Students who succeed in the examinations can obtain a certificate. These certificates don't have the same value of these obtained from the ordinary day schools. In 1990, 128,345 students were enrolled at the secondary level and 13,605 at the higher level. Since 1980 the number of students increased with 53%. In that year 3,288 teachers were involved'in these colleges (857 full-time equivalence) and 932 in higher adult education (186 full-time equivalence).

Second chance education is a relative new provision. The initiative came from the Women's movement. The first "second chance courses" started in 1978. These courses prepare the students for the central examinations, organised by the Flemish Community. Those who succeed in these examinations obtain a certificate that has completely the same value as those from the day schools. At the beginning the people who attended these courses were mainly housewives. Now, more younger men take in this way a second chance. In 1991, 652 adults took classes in second chance education.

The first initiatives in the field of Adult Basic Education did also appear in 1978. They were subsidised as socio-cultural work. In July 1990 - the International Literacy Year - a decree was voted in the Flemish Parliament that founded this new provision for adults and fitted it into the school system. There are now, spread over the country, 28 local centres for Adult Basic Education. In 1990, 7,085 students were enrolled, 45% of them were migrants. In 1992, 233 teachers were involved in ABE or 155.5 full-time equivalence. one third had a university degree, one third a teacher qualification and the other third are social workers.

Distance education is not well developed in the Flemish Community. There are, provided by the Government, correspondence courses for people that prepare themselves for the Central Examinations or for the examinations that lead to functions in the public services. Language courses are also offered.
Open Higher Education - the Flemish Open university - is also very new. It offers their students mainly the courses from the Dutch Open University and some own productions. There are study centres from the Open University on the Flemish universities. The students are enrolled by those universities.

1. 2. Adult education subsidised by the Ministry for Employment.

The second main stream in adult education is vocational training subsidised by the ministry for employment. Training and re-training for the unemployed is the most important part of it. The provider is the V.D.A.B. Which is a public service governed by a board of representatives from the employers and the employees. The V.D.A.B. has her own training centres, but training can also be given in schools and in the workplace. The training is intended for the unemployed, but employees threatened by unemployment can also profit from this provision. There exists training for people working in the secondary and tertiary sector. There are also special schemes for the less-educated. Not only vocational, but also basic skills and languages related to specific jobs can be trained in the V.D.A.B. centres. In 1991 more than 45,000 employees were trained.

The training for shopkeepers and trades' people is provided by 22 autonomous training centres. The support is given by a public service, named V.I.Z.O. The V.I.Z.O. is governed by representatives from the small and medium sized enterprises (SME's). Vocational training and management training are the most important parts of the offer. In 1990 more than 18,000 students followed vocational training for the SME'S, more than 15,500 followed management training.

Agricultural workers have their own training system directed to the problems of taking over an exploitation, new exploitation methods and technological upgrading.

1.3. Socio-cultural education.

The landscape of liberal adult education, subsidised by the minister of Culture, is a lot more complicated. Socio-cultural work in voluntary organisations is the most important part of it. These organisations are born out of the great Social movements during the nineteenth century: the Flemish movement, the Labour movement and the Catholic movement. The biggest organisations have groups in almost every municipality. More then 800, 000 men and women are member of such an organisation. In 1990 those organisations provided about 65,000 educational activities. They have their own staff and educational methodology with techniques for activating people, group learning and social action.

A second and younger component of socio-cultural adult education is provided by institutions for liberal adult education such as the "Folk High Schools". They provide courses lasting at least 6 hours. There are 52 institutions recognised as such by the ministry f or Culture. Some are specialised in special issues. others provide recreational courses as well as training in citizenship. In 1990 about 3,600 courses were subsidised by de ministry with at least twelve participants.

The third component of the system of liberal adult education covers projects for special groups such as the less educated (adult basic education started up as such a project), women, elderly people, disabled people and about special issues (e.g. "citizen education").

Besides that, there exist provisions inside and outside the school system for training and education in the arts.

In 1990, 754 socio-cultural workers were involved in this work of who 50% with a university degree and 50% with a certificate of higher education (social workers and teachers).

2. Developments in the field of adult education.

since the beginning of the eighties, a double movement is going on in the field of adult education.@ Supply and demand for adult education are constantly growing and the point of gravity is moving to training in the workplace.

2.1. Demand and supply.

one of the most important reasons for the growth of demand and supply is the expanding level of education of the population. Founded on the increasing number of certificates delivered during the last years, one can expect that the Flemish Community is moving to a society with twice the number of people that possess a certificate at a secondary level as in 1981, threefold the number of people with a certificate of studies at a higher level and fourfold at a university level. The extension from compulsory education to the age of eighteen, connected with the growing level of unemployment at the beginning of the eighties, has strengthened the process of going longer to school, which still was going on.

There is an iron law in adult education that says: "adults who have a better level of education participate more in adult education". In the last years, the readiness and capabilities of adults to profit from adult education were positively rising. There was also the demand from women for second chance education and a growing concern for the less educated. All this leads to a constant rising demand.

The introduction of the new information technology and the mutations in the organisation of work accompanied by this process did also lead to a greater demand for adult education.

By lack of money, the Government could not give an appropriate answer to all the expectations. The priorities were Adult Basic Education and special opportunities for the less educated and the unemployed people. In those years, a lot of projects started up, but there was no well-developed policy for the whole field of adult education.

Commerce and industry have developed an answer by themselves for the increasing demand. More training now is given on a commercial base, linked to selling products and services or this training is implemented in the jobs. In the enterprises a climate arose by which stimulating lifelong learning is seen as an aspect of "human resources management". Until now 44,6% of the enterprises in Belgium have a training policy and 23,6% of them have their own training services. (van Assche 1990: 12)

Different from the Netherlands, education and training in Belgium are still considered as "services" and not as "merchandise". There is no mercantile tradition in this field. That has certainly something to do which the limited supply due to the small scale of both the population and the target groups. Though, in the market the commercial initiatives have taken advantage from the "boom" in the demand for adult education, as well as in the domain of vocational training as in the field of recreational courses. In general one can say that in the eighties, priority was given to learning for economic purposes and that liberal adult education was put back by society. In spite of that, the demand for general education became more prominent and the aspect of general education, such as social and communication skills, got a more important place in vocational training.

2.2. Learning is moving to the workplace.

It is not a new fact that most of adult learning is vocational. It always has been. In the past, adult learning was seen as an activity for after the working-hours. Now, learning is becoming part of the job. Due to the general shortage on jobs, the trade-unions give a strong support to this movement. The feminisation of the labour-force is an other important factor in this process. More and better educated women are asking for a job and more women than ever before do have a job; but the family-duties stay the same. For that reason, time becomes scarce and one is less willing to spent
it on learning.

Some years ago, only the more important firms and services had a training policy and training services. Now more firms take educational initiatives. Further, non-profit and civil services, for example in the field of social welfare and education, are developing their training services too. At the same time, the responsibility for training in the enterprises is moving from the training units to the workplace.

As a result of these changes in the learning climate, more people than ever before are helping adults to learn and it became a part of their job.

3. The process of professionalisation.

Professionalisation can point to three things:
a. a growing number of adult educators;
b. a formal recognition of the function
c. the development of expertise.

3.1. A growing number of adult educators.

No one can deny that more people are occupied in adult education than ever before. But the level of involvement is quite different. For a lot of people helping adults to learn is a part of their job. They consider themselves not as adult educators. Some thousands of people are occupied in adult education on a part-time basis, mainly as teachers and trainers. They also don't see themselves in the first place as adult educators. Only for a few, a function in adult education is the principal employment. Such full-time adult educators are working a. as managers or administrators; b. as teachers and trainers or c. they have a support function concerning curriculum development, staff development, organisation development. In Flanders the support function in adult education is rather new. Further, one may not forget the - in many cases well qualified - volunteers working mainly in liberal and non-formal adult education.

3.2. The formal recognition of the function.

One can not say that the function of adult educator obtained a formal recognition by society. That is mainly due to the low number of full-time adult educators and the high proportion of part-time and voluntary workers. This situation has changed in some degree with the introduction of Adult Basic Education, because this form of adult education employs more full-time adult educators and the courses are given during day-time. Further, the decree from 1990 founding Adult Basic Education, make5 it obligatory to follow an additional training for those working in this field. It is for the first time that specific competencies for people working in adult education are required by law. As a rule, one never got further than asking for a teaching authorisation in general. The other forms of adult education have their own criteria for the selection of their cooperators. Special qualifications for adult education have for them, generally speaking, no other value then a recommendation.

3.3. The development of expertise.

Going back in history, we can see a very remarkable evolution. The first forms of specialised training for adult education were localised in the schools for social work that arose in the twenties. Those schools had to prepare their scholars to take up the responsibility for liberal adult education seen as "popular education" or community education.
It was mainly through these schools that, after the second world war, new theories (planned change, client centred approaches) and new methods like groupwork and community development were introduced in adult education.

When, at the end of the sixties, the universities started up their departments of social-pedagogy (Leuven 1966) or socialagogy (Ghent 1974 and Brussels 1976), they joined and supported (as in Amsterdam) that tradition. Those departments belong to the faculty of educational and psychological sciences. Inside these faculties there was little or no co-operation with the other departments to develop a well-founded core of knowledge concerning adult education. Those departments also had nothing to do with teacher training; which in general, is underdeveloped at Belgian universities.

In the eighties, the evolution in the field of adult education gave strong impulses to the development of expertise. Teachers, as well as social workers, were involved in literacy programmes and in vocational training for the less educated unemployed. They had to cooperate which colleagues coming from completely different traditions. This confrontation, where the universities also were involved in, was a very important step in the process of professionalisation. And the fact that Adult Basic Education, first started up as socio- cultural work, was implemented in the school-system, gave adult education a supplementary gain in status. From then on the need for specific qualifications is more and more recognised. At the same time more graduates from the universities with a study in social- pedagogy or andragogy became involved in support and managerial functions in adult education and in the new training services in the enterprises and in the non-profit sector.

At the moment, people accept that there exists some kind of specific "know-how" of adult education and that a function in this field demands appropriated qualifications. The Flemish Council for Education has in a recent advice to the Government, concerning teacher training for the future, accepted that special training modules are to be provided for people working in adult education. (May 1993)

Apart from that, the idea stands that qualifications for adult education are still in the first place a matter of professional competence and not of pedagogical (andragogical) knowledge.

4. Developments in the training of adult educators.

In the book "The training of Adult Educators in Western Europe" we sketched the picture of the training of adult educators in Belgium. In practice only a few things are changed.

In the evening schools for social promotion, the largest part of the adult educators are school teachers with a part time charge in adult education. Usually, only the head of the school can be seen as a full-time adult educator. Support functions don't exist. A teacher-licence suffices to be appointed.

In the training centres for the unemployed the trainers are full-time appointed. A support-centre exists which is involved in the recruitment and the in-service training of the trainers. Professional expertise is the first criterion to be engaged.

In the training centres for the SME's the trainers are parttime appointed craftsman and shop-keepers without a formal training authorisation. In-service training and support are offered by the V.I.Z.O.

In socio-cultural work the choice was made for "an open profession". This means that the entree in the profession must be available for people coming from different disciplines. But a higher or university degree is required. In-service training is stimulated and partly provided by the Flemish Centre for liberal adult education (V.C.V.0.).

The most innovative initiative is taken in'the field of Adult Basic Education. As mentioned before, the decree concerning ABE requires an additional certificate for those working in that part of adult education. The FI.P-mish Support Centre for ABE (V.O.C.B.) is responsible for the development of the compulsory further training for those working in this field and for the in-service training. The programme has a modular form. The main issues are:

a. Adult education in a larger sense: the learning process of adults,, provisions for adult education, adult education policy,
b. The Centres of ABE: offer, profile, organisation, policy, management, staff development.
c. Social knowledge and skills in ABE.
d. Language learning: a. Dutch as second language; b. Dutch literacy.
e. Numeracy.
f. Preparation to continuing and vocational education and employment.

The training scheme contains 29 modules of approximately 36 hours, of which every trainer composes (in consultation with the centre where he or she is working) an individual programme for at least 144 hours and at most 160 hours a year. Those hours are considered as working hours. The training as a whole covers a period of three years and a half.

A module contains face-to-face tutorial sessions (40%), self study with specific written materials (30%) and different learning tasks (30%). Some materials are developed in co-operation with S.T.O.H.O., the Flemish Open university. At the end the students will obtain a certificate needed to be appointed as a qualified trainer in ABE.

For the future one is preparing a plan for the reorganisation of the teacher training as a whole, in accordance with developments in other European countries. In this context the intention is to offer specialised training for those working in the field of adult education.

At the moment a study is going on, executed by the D.V.0. - a new and official study centre for curriculum development in the Flemish Community - concerning the qualifications people need in our society and schools have to work on. They will found the curriculum on job-descriptions and job-analyses. They don't go as far as the UK NCVQ- approach, but there still is some resemblance. They will also develop aims for teacher training and in this perspective, job descriptions are provided concerning the field of adult education. For example, for the segment of socio-cultural work, we have developed the job descriptions ourselves (Hinnekint 1992).

5. A challenge.

In spite of the increasing number of men and women working in the field of adult education and the growing body of specialised knowledge developed, it remains difficult for society to recognise adult education as a profession. The reason therefore is, as explained, that most of the adult educators are doing their jobs part-time or as a part of their jobs. And this will not change quickly. Full-time jobs are mainly reserved for adult educators working in a managerial function or a support function. This is not likely to change rapidly too.

But, how important is such a recognition? The question "how to spread and implement in society good, well-founded knowledge about adult education?" is far more important. Certainly, the universities have to play a decisive role in this process, stimulating research and reflection on good practice and giving support on the training of adult educators. But teacher training seems to be the most important way to reach and interest the greatest potential on people that once perhaps part-time, as a part of their job or as a volunteer may be asked to take up responsibility for tasks in adult education.

Therefore, the reorganisation of the system of teacher training in Flanders seems to be a big opportunity for us to set a step forward in the process of professionalisation.

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Pedagogy, Andragogy and Professional Education

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The title of this paper has a slightly historical ring about it. The idea of contrasting pedagogy and andragogy is something that was undertaken in the 1970s, as a result of the early writings of Knowles (1970) and the ensuing debate (Elias,1979; McKenzie,1977,1979 et al which forced him to change his mind (Knowles, 1980), although he has always given the impression of being emotionally committed to a clear distinction between them. However, the aim of this paper is not to retrace old ground, but to extend the debate in a slightly different direction using these traditional concepts as a baseline, so that the first section recalls Knowles' main points underlying the original debate. Thereafter, they are utilised in vocational education in relation to both the initial and continuing elements, and this is the crucial point of departure - both concepts are used here in relation to the education of adults. The third part of the paper highlights some of the implications of the discussion for the training and professional development of educators.

Part 1 Pedagogy and Andragogy - a false distinction ?

When Knowles (1970) first contrasted pedagogy and andragogy he sub-titled the first edition of The Modern Practice of Adult Education - 'pedagogy versus andragogy'; he (1980) later toned this down and the revised edition was sub-titled 'from pedagogy to andragogy'. However, he still maintained that they were different forms of teaching and learning which had a tendency to occur chronologically, although he admitted that there were times when children could learn andragogically and adults pedagogically. It is the fact that adults can learn both pedagogically and andragogically which constitutes the underlying theme of this paper, but first it is necessary to refer back to Knowles' initial four characteristics which he thought differentiated the two, although he later changed the four to five (1984) and then to six (1989)! The ability to add or subtract characteristics to a concept at will may be regarded as advantageous since it allows it to be flexible in this time of rapid social change, but it might also be interpreted as a failure to define the concept sufficiently rigorously in the first instance, so that there are no parameters to prevent characteristics being added or subtracted. The original four characteristics, however, comprise the basis of this analysis and they were: changes in the self-concept, the role of experience; readiness to learn; orientation towards learning. Each of these are now briefly discussed.

Self-Concept: Knowles (1978,p.55) suggested that 'as a person grows and matures his self-concept moves from one of total dependency (as in the reality of the infant) to one of increasing self-directedness.' The falsity of this first point is very obvious - the very old may also have total dependency upon another self, although they are very mature. In addition, it is clear that not everyone seeks or even attains self-dependency; indeed, it could be argued that not everybody actually wishes to be totally self-dependent and this proposition reflects the ideology of American individualism, and the whole basis of this characteristic suggests that it was written by a Westerner who had attained a degree of independence. In this late modern world it is possible to doubt the certainty of Western ideology and even more easy to recognise that autonomy is a much more complex concept than this distinction implies (Jarvis, 1992). Even so, there are times when there are fundamental differences in the level of autonomy individuals exercise in their actions, and this is a point to which further reference will be made below.

Experience: Knowles' (1978,p 56) second point is about the role of experience and he claims that 'as an individual matures he accumulates an expanding reservoir of experience that causes him to become an increasingly rich resource for learning, and at the same time provides him with a broadening base to which to relate new learnings.' Once again the over-simplicity of this distinction can be easily illustrated and a personal illustration will suffice. Sitting in an hotel room overlooking Harlem, gazing out from the window late at night, it was possible to imagine grown people being totally out of their depth in the middle of Harlem at that moment, while younger children were street-wise and able to cope with the situation there. The point about this illustration is obvious - experience is contextual rather than chronological and so the growth in experience need bear little or no relation to age - just to the biography of the one who experiences.

Readiness to Learn: Readiness to learn was Knowles' third point in which he (1978,p.57) claimed that 'as an individual matures, his readiness to learn is decreasingly the product of his biological development and academic pressure and is increasingly the product of developmental tasks required for the performance of his evolving social roles.' He goes on to suggest that pedagogy assumes that children learn what they ought to because of their biological development whereas adults learn what they need to learn to cope with the exigencies of their daily living. But if children did not learn to cope with the needs of their daily living they would be totally disorientated in their everyday existence, irrespective of their biological or academic development. In addition, adults learn because of their biological development, especially in old age. These points demonstrate Knowles' failure to analyse the process of biological development. Children are forced to learn academic subjects by virtue of their being in school, but adults are also forced to learn about the work situation, but in both cases there might be more self-direction about learning and responding to the demands of everyday living at times when they are free from the organisational constraints, and this occurs irrespective of age of the learners.

Orientation towards Learning: The final point that Knowles (1978,p.58) made originally was that 'children have been conditioned to have a subject-centred orientation to most learning, whereas adults tend to have a problem-centred orientation to learning.' But it is possible to look at a very young child trying to solve its problems and the lifelong learner grappling with the demands of philosophy. Even so, there is a difference here that needs further exploration.

Each of Knowles' four points are demonstrably false in certain situations when the distinction is related to biological age, but the distinctions in themselves are not false and this is an important point for the development of this argument. The distinctions are: that some people are more autonomous than others, or that there are situations in which some individuals are more dependent than others upon other people; that experience and biography are related through learning and that those with more experience have a greater depth of learning to bring to potentially new learning experiences; that in certain situations individuals have to learn while in others they are more self-directed about their learning needs; that there are both subject centred and problem centred learning situations. Each of these four points are important to the following discussion and reference will be made to them below.

Part 2 A Reconceptualisation of Andragogy and Pedagogy

From the above discussion it is very clear that relating andragogy and pedagogy to biological age is fundamentally false, as the debate in the 1970s indicated. The distinction is superficial since it relates it to only one variable - age - with which it has a possible but not a necessary association, while it omits epistemological, ontological and organisational considerations. However, the actual distinctions drawn between the two types of teaching and learning are not necessarily wrong. It is maintained here that they can be seen to be relevant to the differences between initial and continuing vocational education: initial vocational education refers to the course of education and training that new recruits undergo on entry to an occupation - which has traditionally been called vocational education, whereas continuing vocational education refers to additional education and training that practitioners receive during their occupational career, and after they have entered their occupational role. Each of the four characteristics in Knowles' initial formulation will now be discussed in relation to these two forms of vocational education.

Autonomy and Dependence: New recruits to an occupation may have some knowledge about the demands of an occupation, although their knowledge, skills and attitudes are still those of the outsider to the occupation itself. It is, therefore, quite natural that they should not feel independent or consider themselves independent practitioners in the first instance. Indeed, the professions themselves often recognise this and provide mentors and other forms of support, during initial training, in order to assist the recruits to develop into fully fledged professional practitioners. The point is, therefore, that in initial vocational education, the occupations do not anticipate recruits being autonomous in respect to their occupational role.

At the same time, when individuals are fully trained they are expected to develop the ability to practise independently, or at least in collaboration with others. Hence, when practitioners return to education for continuing vocational education they are more autonomous practitioners, and are used to being treated in that manner.

Consequently, it is possible to see that there is a degree of difference in the manner by which the students within an educational setting might expect to be treated as a result of their situation - in initial vocational education they cannot be treated as autonomous practitioners but in continuing vocational education they should expect to be regarded as more autonomous, although they should not be regarded as completely autonomous within the education organisational framework (Jarvis, 1992).

Biography and Experience: New recruits to an occupation have little or no experience of being a member of that occupation, although their biography may be rich and mature, but in the situation in which they find themselves they are being prepared to have new experiences. Therefore, the content of their vocational preparation is new for them - it is theoretical and something which they have never previously experienced at first hand. The point is that the learning experiences that they are having in initial preparation are secondary or mediated experiences which are preparing them to adapt to a new primary experiences. New secondary experiences are being mediated to the recruits through their learning about professional practice and the theoretical underpinnings of practice.

However, when experienced practitioners return to continuing vocational education, they may be experts - they will almost certainly have had more current primary experience in practice than many of their instructors in the continuing vocational education. The students, then, bring a rich reservoir of experience to the learning situation - they may have more knowledge and skill in the current practice situation etc. than their teachers. Hence, teachers should recognise the wealth of experience that practitioners, as experts, bring to the learning situation and so they should plan their teaching and learning sessions accordingly.

Self-Direction and Obligation in Learning: Self direction has become a major area of research in learning in America while Candy (1991) and Jarvis (1992) endeavour to distinguish between the freedom to learn that occurs outside an organisation (Candy calls this 'autodidaxy') and the self-direction which occurs within in learning within an educational organisation. In the one it is a sense of 'want' and in the other a feeling of 'ought' and both of these relate to the concept of 'learning need' frequently employed in education. Underlying the whole of this are quite fundamental debates but they cannot be pursued here since they are peripheral to this thesis. When recruits enter a new occupation, however, the occupation normally specifies the body of knowledge and skill that new practitioners should acquire. At the same time, in the process of daily living people become aware of their own learning needs and respond accordingly, often through their own self-direction. But this is also true for expert practitioners who are fully aware of the demand of their practice; they are aware of their learning needs and the more professional they are the more self-directed they may be about responding to those needs.

In initial vocational education, it is possible to prepare a curriculum in advance and plan a full course of preparation which might last anything from a few weeks to several years, whereas it would be much more pretentious for educators to do the same with expert practitioners who are returning for continuing education and know what they need. In this latter case, educational institutions might prepare a menu of short courses and offer them to practitioners to decide which ones are relevant to their perceived needs, or the educators might offer courses in which the content is to be negotiated at their commencement, or else they might negotiate with professional bodies or employers and prepare courses relevant to the requirements of the members or employers concerned.

Subject-centred and Problem-centred: Professional preparation should include a number of different aspects of knowledge: there should be knowledge about 'how' to practise; knowledge 'that' when an action in performed in a certain manner there will usually be an expected outcome (knowledge that); knowledge about 'why' those outcomes should occur. Knowledge 'how' and knowledge 'that' should certainly be taught during initial preparation, but the extent to which knowledge 'why' should be included in the initial curriculum is debatable.

Knowledge 'how' has two elements: learning the actual skill of performing and learning the procedures about how the skill is performed - at this level knowledge and skill are completely integrated, although the more competent practitioners in their practice, the harder it is for some of them to describe their performance to another (Nyiri, 1988). Knowledge 'that' is learning that given specific conditions, certain procedures should be performed and that there are certain likely outcomes of the procedures, so that given a situation practitioners learn to know which procedures they might apply in order to achieve desired results. This is theoretical knowledge, and there is a sense in which the more knowledgable the practitioners are, the more likely they are to be able to respond to situations in a meaningful way in order to achieve the results that they want. Now the relationship between theory and practice is slightly further removed - it becomes pragmatic (Heller, 1984). That is,if practitioners act on probability but with sufficient ground, then the unity between theory and practice is achieved when the desired outcomes are achieved, but there is always the possibility that these desired outcomes will not be attained - this is because there is always a sense of probability in pragmatism. To know why a procedure should work, or to know why a policy has been introduced, requires a different kind of theoretical knowledge, one which is based in the academic disciplines. Hence, it might be necessary to have a thorough understanding of metallurgy, or chemistry, in order to understand why a plumber's skills actually achieve the desired outcomes. Likewise, it might be necessary to have a good understanding of politics and policy to understand why a government introduces specific policies about an occupation or profession. In this latter instance, knowledge 'why' need not have any direct relationship to practice, although it might have. However, this form of knowledge is fundamentally grounded in the subject and led by the demands of the academic discipline, whereas the other two types of knowledge are grounded in practice and led by its demands, and so the debate between theory and practice is seen to be much more complex than is often the case.

It might, therefore, be argued that learning knowledge 'why' demands a subject-centred approach whereas learning knowledge 'how' and 'that' demands a practice based approach. Both approaches are necessary, and it might well be that in initial vocational preparation recruits are introduced to the academic disciplines as well as the demands of practice and in continuing vocational education it is the problems, whether they are in or about practice, that constitute the basis of the study. However, it is just as possible to argue that initial vocational preparation should not include a great deal of knowledge 'why' and that this should occur when practitioners see the relevance of studying the subjects in the light of the problems that they experience in practice.

It may thus be seen that those characteristics which Knowles typifies as pedagogic do apply much more to the initial preparation of recruits to the professions and those which he typifies as andragogic are more relevant to continuing professional education. At the same time, it would be wrong to claim that there is a clear-cut division between them. It could be argued, also, that this distinction relates to some extent to the level of experience and to the biography of the learners, but it does not necessarily relate to biological age.

Part 3 Implications for Training and Professional Development

It is important at this stage to reiterate that since the learners are all adults, they should be treated as adults and not as children, irrespective of whether they are engaged in initial or continuing vocational education - and that this is not a matter of whether it is andragogical or pedagogical in the Knowlesian sense of the terms, so that both come within the ambit of the education of adults.

However, the implications of these conclusions for curriculum design in the professions are quite significant since it implies that two distinctly different forms of curriculum or programme might emerge, or have emerged. Indeed, it might well be possible to suggest that a curriculum can exist for initial vocational education, but a programme of courses is all that should be offered in continuing vocational education.

A Curriculum for Initial Vocational Education: Neither a curriculum nor an outline curriculum will be suggested here, but each of the four points discussed above are examined briefly and the implications discussed. Recruits to an occupation do enter it without having the necessary confidence to be autonomous and independent, so that within the context of the vocational education there should be some recognition that the recruits need more help in the first instance from the experts. This is, in fact, given, but it also has to be recognised that since the recruits may not have a great deal of previous experience about either the topics being taught or the field of practice they need to gain knowledge through mediated experience, and this is essential so that when they actually enter the field of practice they will have enough previous experience, albeit secondary, to cope with the world of practice. Since there is a body of theoretical knowledge and basic skills that the recruits are expected to learn, there should be fewer opportunities to negotiate the content of the curriculum, unless the whole curriculum and its implications have been discussed with the learners beforehand. Indeed, it might well be argued that there is a body of knowledge and skills etc. that intending practitioners ought to know before they enter practice and that it is the responsibility of educators, the professions themselves and even the employers to ensure that that body of knowledge and skills have been mastered before a recruit can enter the profession. Consequently, a great deal of the curriculum might be subject-centred, but the extent to which the academic disciplines should be included in the curriculum is a debatable point.

It is possible to build up a modular initial vocational education programme allowing the recruits to choose those aspects of the professional preparation that they would like to study and at what time, and there are certain advantages in this contemporary society in designing such a programme. Nevertheless, there are also disadvantages such as a lack of coherence and a failure to have a broad spread of knowledge about the occupational practice, so that it is suggested here that the strengths of the curriculum approach are quite valid, although its mode of delivery might have to change, and so professional educators should not jettison the curriculum approach without due consideration and research.

Continuing Vocational Education Programmes: In continuing vocational education there might be no curriculum nor even a coherent programme of courses. Practitioners might require specialist areas, or updating in specific aspects of their practice. Educational organisations might prepare a programme of short continuing vocational education modules from which practitioners can choose those topics which they want to learn. This means that continuing professional educators must be aware of the areas which the practitioners feel that they need to learn about, and traditionally adult educators and programme planners have called this a 'needs assessment' but in this modern world it is market research. Having conducted the market research, the programme has to be marketed to practitioners who know what they want, or need, to learn.

Since they are experienced practitioners, they come to continuing vocational education with a level of expertise and a sense of autonomy that means that they do not expect to be treated as dependent learners. They have more knowledge and experience, so that they are able to consider critically the learning that they are offered, and to evaluate its usefulness to their practice. Significantly, this might include both subject-centred and problem-centred topics.

Some professions have tried to provide a curriculum for professional continuing education, legislating what should be learned after the recruits have entered practice. However, this runs the risk of creating areas of irrelevancy during the continuing training and of treating individuals who are in the process of becoming autonomous practitioners as if they do not know what they themselves need to improve their practice and that they still need to be dependent upon the profession for their training. As such it appears contrary to the ethos of contemporary vocational education.

As the contemporary society is changing at such a rapid rate, and the issues with which practitioners have to cope become more complex, continuing vocational education will continue to be a major element of vocational education. Indeed, a division of labour might be emerging within it, so that some educators concentrate on initial preparation whilst others specialise in continuing vocational education, although this might not be economic unless the educational institution is large enough to sustain both elements of vocational education. It follows from this that either professional educators have themselves to be trained in one specialism or else their training has to be expanded to include those contemporary skills required to market continuing professional education courses - but managers also have to recognise that there are different skills required for the two roles, but Harmer (1990) discovered that directors of nurse education were making no distinction between the two when they were seeking to employ new nurse education staff. The question then arises whether the distinction has been made by those who prepare vocational educators for their role, and this is a question which requires more research.

Conclusion

This paper started off from a rather traditional perspective in adult education terms, referring to a 1970s debate, in which it was shown that Knowles' distinction between andragogy and pedagogy is not sustainable when related to biological age. There need be no difference in the way that he envisaged between teaching adults and teaching children. However, within vocational education itself there may be differences but these do not relate to age or to the style or method of teaching - since all the learners are adults. The differences relate to the levels of experience of the learners and to the forms of knowledge appropriate to the stage in their professional development, so that while the andragogy-pedagogy distinction is false its attraction lies in the fact that it highlighted a relevant and significant set of differences about which educators in the occupations must be aware in order to provide worthwhile vocational education to different sets of potential learners.

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Lifelong Learning - Holy Grail or Poisoned Chalice?

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The Learning Company and Employee Personal Development Schemes

> The Englishman has yet to learn
> that an extended and systematic
> education is now a necessary
> preliminary to the future
> development of industry.
> (Samuelson Report, 1882)

Criticisms of the British education and training system, and in particular its vocational training system are not new. In a recent article it has been argued that,

> . . .the history of vocational education
> and training in Britain is one of recurring
> cycles of concern, usually prompted by
> worries about British competitiveness.
> (Keep & Mayhew 1991 : 196 - 197)

In Britain, as in other industrial economies during the 1980s, the debate about education, training and skills has moved closer to the top of the political agenda, reflecting both general concerns about economic competitiveness and more specific education and training deficiencies within the UK economy.

At the heart of this concern is the restructuring of the world economy and that of economic communities and individual nations over the last thirty years. This economic restructuring, characterised by the increased integration of world markets, the movement of mass manufacturing to the NICs and the continuing development and introduction of new technologies in both products and processes, has brought in its wake an increased concern with education and training and highlighted the allegedly critical importance of human skills in restructured economies. As the Commission of the European Communities (1990) outlined,

> . . investment in training is indispensable
> for individuals, enterprises and regions
> alike. It is one of the constructive
> responses which the Community can give to
> the momentous challenges awaiting it, in
> the economic, technological and demographic
> arenas, in terms of employment and
> ultimately, of the cohesion of the
> Community itself. . . Vocational training
> offers the best means of creating a pool
> of skills in the Community which can be
> tapped to boost the positive effects
> of the internal market, while moderating
> the risks of imbalance.

In Britain this has produced more than a decade of change within the education and training system with increased centralized control, the development of a national curriculum, national testing in schools, the integration of enterprise elements into schools (TVEI) and higher education (EHE), a major expansion in the numbers undertaking higher education, the introduction of a vocational qualification system (NVQs) and a publicised concern for learning to play a critical role in social and economic development.

Although opposed at certain stages by some of the professional groups engaged in these areas, on the whole their introduction and indeed the whole debate about education and training has been conducted within a broad consensus. Politicians of all hues, trade unionists, employers, bureaucrats and academics have all agreed on the need for a skills revolution and the need to overhaul education and training. In 1987 the Trades Union Congress (TUC) stated:

> Britain is facing a skills challenge greater than any since the Industrial Revolution. Major changes in work, in the workforce, and in the global economy are creating the need to tap the potential of all our workers. By the year 2000, we will be either a super-skills economy, or a low skill, low pay society.(TUC, 1987)

A perspective echoed by every Minister at the Department of Employment and by the Confederation of Brtish Industry (CBI)
which argued that:

> Individuals are now the only source of sustainable competitive advantage. Efforts must be focussed on mobilising their commitment and encouraging self-development and life-long learning. (CBI,1989)

Throughout the 1980s and early 1990s it has been almost impossible to find opponents of the learning culture with its learning companies, learning cities and learning societies. This in itself is a cause for concern in that this broad consensus is shared by individuals and groups who fundamentally disagree about almost every other aspect of British society. The implication is that different groups mean different things by the skills revolution and at the same time it means that there is little critical analysis of the process. Indeed it is clear that the worthy rhetoric masks a number of contradictions which pose threats to a balanced development of a coherent education and training system and also more importantly to the economic and social well being of the wider community.

The debate about training fails to put training into the wider context of the UK economy and in particular fails to understand the composition of British industry and its employment requirements. What the Balfour Committee, as far back as 1929 reported, remains largely true at the present time.

> British industry was desperately short of well educated and skilled personnel of all kinds compared with its rivals . . and yet this fraction (of skilled workers) was actually more than British industry wished to employ. (Balfour Committee,1929)

The UK economy is increasingly divided between a small advanced core in which increased skills are required and a wider periphery which remains hostile to technological innovation and consumed with a low costs/low wage scenario which is underpinned by a financial system which works on a short term profit cycle rather than a long term investment cycle.

Another basic contradiction lies in the attempt to combine economic and social objectives,

> . . there may well be a conflict between
> the economic and labor market objectives
> of adult education on the one hand, and
> its cultural, social and redistributive
> gaols on the other. (Tuijnman,1990)

Economic restructuring in the advanced industrial economies has produced in its wake a number of important social consequences often referred to as social marginalization. Amongst the most important of these consequences have been regionalized structural unemployment concentrated on older male workers, young unskilled workers and ethnic minorities. This structural unemployment which has existed for more than a decade is largely impervious to changes in the economic cycle; the development of a bifurcated labour force with increased numbers of workers required in the upper highly skilled bands and also in the unskilled lower bands but with the middle bands which were so important in the old industries increasingly non-existent. This pattern is increasingly also to be found in the service sector where centralized control systems and the downward delegation of authority are stripping away the middle employment bands. Replacement employment has brought with it a dramatic increase in part-time, temporary and seasonal work and sub-contracting.

Changes in employment combined with neo-conservative fiscal policies and a decline in welfare provision have produced increased social inequalities and increased spatial segregation in which certain areas are characterised by social deprivation. A further consequence has been a quantative and a qualitative decline in trade unionism with sharp falls in trade union membership and their increasing exclusion from public policy making, not least in their exclusion from automatic membership of the Training and Education Councils (TECs).

A prime requirement of restructured economies is a smaller core of advanced production and work which require a highly skilled labour force. A concentration on the skills required in these areas may serve labour market objectives but also at the same time increases social marginalization.

A simple concern with increasing training also fails to recognise that there are fundamental deficiencies within the initial education system. In particular there exists a two tier system in which the production of an intellectual eite means that little attention is paid to the majority . The educational ethos is dominated by the demands of Higher Education and an examination pattern which produces an early specialization. This in turn produces a situation where the educational system reinforces class distinctions and the cultural constraints that inhibit the development of an all embracing educational culture and a poor educational foundation on which to lay training.

In the UK the lead role in the development of a training culture has been given to private sector employers which seems strange when it is this group which has been largely responsible historically for a retarded training system. Historically it is this group who have been most concerned with the development of job specific training and with short term objectives. At the same time recent developments have seen a diminished role for the trade unions and a lack of concern for a consensual framework, which is in sharp contrast to policy developments elsewhere:

> Examination of VET systems in Japan,
> France and Sweden indicates that in
> these countries education and training
> operates in the context of a wider
> system of economic planning and
> social partnership; notions which
> have never fully taken root in Britain.
> (Keep & Mayhew,1991)

Developments since 1979 seem to have made very little difference and the development of a learning culture seem as far away as ever. However in one area there have been significant developments, that is in the introduction of Employee Personal Development Schemes, a feature which is much more common in the UK than amongst our continental partners. As part of an ongoing research project the author conducted a survey of employer attitudes towards EPDS. It is difficult to arrive at a definition of EPDS because the form it has taken and its objectives have varied between firms, however a central fearture of them is that they are a supplement to job or firm specific training and include educational as well as training courses and that the pattern and form of educational take up is initiated by the individual employee. (for a discussion of the leading schemes see Metcalfe,1992).

There are already a number of analyses of the major schemes in operation but in this project the intention was not to study these flagship schemes in a number of often very large firms but rather to find the situation in a range of more average firms. To this end interviews were conducted in 1992/3 in two contrasting regions, the old industrial region of West Yorkshire and a growing centre of economic activity, East Anglia. The survey attempted to cover as wide a range of economic activity as possible and included chemicals and pharmaceuticals, engineering, high technology, local authorities, recently privatized energy and public service industries, higher education, food suppliers and supermarkets, and financial services. These firms varied in size from firms with less than ten employees to organizations employing thousands of workers.

The interviews showed a number of general features :-

1. There were important differences in approach to employee personal development in different sectors of the economy.

2. Formal written employee personal development schemes were rare although the bulk of organizations gave various forms of assistance to employees undertaking non job related education and training.

3. The reasons for developing such schemes or supporting employee personal development emanated from a variety of motives and were often very firm specific.

4. There was a clear division between assistance provided in core and periphery firms and between medium and large firms and small businesses.

5. The devolution of training budgets down the managerial and supervisory hierarchy was producing contradictory responses.

6. Although there were significant differences between sectors there were few differences between regions.

The myth of the backwardness of British manufacturing and the supposed superior qualities of the service sector was seen to be just that - a myth. The sectors most willing to assist with employee personal development were in manufacturing, most particularly in chemicals, pharmaceuticals and engineering. The sectors least willing to help were Higher Education and Financial Services Most striking was the fact that employee personal development was seen as encompassing all workers in the former whilst in the latter much greater attention and financial support was given to senior grades. Within Financial Services professional qualifications were perceived as being paramount and there little attempt to see education and training as being part of a process to create creative and flexible workers. Within the recently privatized sectors there was an overwhelming concern with balance sheets and this concern had led to a major increase in sub-contracting with no attempt to impose training conditions on sub-contractors.

The vast majority of firms or organizations interviewed did not have a formal written Employee Personal Development Scheme and most respondents stated that they did want a formal scheme. Rather they wanted to show to employees that they were willing to support employee initiatives in this area but expected the demand to emanate from their employees. Support varied immensely but undoubtedly the greatest support was given to those areas of study which were considered as being most useful to the firm (eg computing) running through the spectrum to the least support for those most non-job related (eg

Art Appreciation). Support was forthcoming in a number of ways : payment of fees, paid time off, changing shifts and paying for course materials. Financial support was extremely common but it varied from the payment of token amounts to the full payment of fees. In addition it was paid in different ways - sometimes up front, sometimes on satisfactory completion and occasionally in stages throughout the course. The greatest problem for employers was with modifications to shift patterns which was felt to have serious implications for production and for staff morale (amongst fellow workers). Giving time off work to undertake courses was perceived as a major problem amongst small firms and even amongst larger firms was far less popular than employees undertaking courses in their own time but with financial assistance from employers.

Employers considered that the cost implications of supporting employees on courses were marginal and the benefits in terms of goodwill far outweighed the costs. However there was very little educational guidance given to employees by training departments and it was perceived as being of minor importance in comparison with job related training.

The reasons for developing employee personal development schemes or providing assistance to employees undertaking educational courses were extremely varied and were often firm specific. There was no evidence that firms involved themselves in this area to recruit or retain staff, although the fact that the survey took place during an economic recession may have affected this finding. The majority of firms were undertaking it as part of a quality package believing that education might be helpful in creating a more flexible and committed workforce and one more tied to employer objectives. In one manufacturing firm it was being introduced as part of a package intended to break the power of the trade unions. The firm believed that personal educational development would break collective consciousness and individualize workers. As part of the scheme the firm was introducing a wages and salary structure which was to be tied partly to education and training criteria. In virtually every firm interviewed there was little involvement on the part of the trade unions. At the same time there was little or no hostility on the part of trade union officials to these developments. The only trade union official to express some misgivings made it clear that in the present economic climate the trade union movement was confronted by more important and pressing problems. Other reasons given for its introduction were as part of a programme to get more women and ethnic minority employees into more senior positions, to improve industrial relations and to improve its image.

There were clear differences between core and periphery firms and most strikingly a very different situation amongst small firms. Support for Employee Personal Development Schemes was non existent amongst the small firms interviewed. This was not due to any hostility to the concept but rather to its impact on production. This was reflected most clearly in the fact that a number of small firms were willing to provide financial support for employee educational initiatives but none were willing to countenance paid leave or even unpaid leave because of its impact on production. From the interviews it was clear that the training debate was largely bypassing small firms raising the need for wider schemes which could draw in large numbers of small firms. The loss of industry wide training boards may have been particularly acute for smaller firms.

In terms of the core/periphery debate where large firms used sub-contractors none were willing to impose training conditions above those necessary by law (health & hygiene etc.) and awarded work almost entirely on the basis of price. There was clear evidence that amongst core firms training had assumed a growing influence whilst in the periphery it was of far less importance.

Amongst a large number of firms devolution of training budgets had occurred with budgets and decisionmaking being devolved to line managers. The interviews with training managers indicated that this was producing contradictory responses. In some firms it was leading to a more perceptive, imaginative and flexible use of resources. However in many firms it seemed to be the last straw in the devolution of decision making that line managers were overwhelmed and training was perceived as a low priority amongst the full range of their duties. It was also seen as leading to an insular departmentalism and a loss of understanding of overrall company objectives.

There was no significant differences between firms in the regions studied, rather the differences between sectors was confirmed. Attitudes and behaviour towards education and training were remarkably similar reflecting a national attitude in this field.

At the present time human resource development is seen as a critical component of economic activity and there is a case that it is producing individual personal development and, though this remains unproved, improvements in productivity and labour relations. The response from the workforce has shown that employees do wish to undertake education and training courses, indeed it may be argued that in some respects it has been the most conspicuosly sucessful of the education and training developments of the last two decades. There is clearly a growing interest in the schemes but these initiatives need to be viewed with caution.

Employee Personal Development Schemes are concentrated on a small number of firms and in many respects exacerbate existing educational and training divisions within UK society. They do very little to confront the wider problems of the British education and training system, rather they mmay serve to paper over the problems. The fact that they are generally very cheap in terms of firm's overrall budgets has been seized upon. In addition they divert attention from the need for major social and political changes which are required to destroy the cultural constraints which underpin deficiencies in education and training. The schemes do little for those who are not in employment and only marginally more for those in seasonal, temporary and part-time work. There is very clearly within the UK economy a growing division between a highly skilled core who are the recipients on increased amounts of training and the remainder which receives a poor education and minimal amounts of training. Often they are being introduced to confront immediate problems within firms and sectors without any conception of them as an ongoing system. Indeed it might be argued that, apart from the benefits which small numbers of individuals are deriving from them, that rather than helping to assist in the movement towards lifelong learning and learning as the central feature of advanced industrial societies they are in fact reinforcing social marginalization and doing very little to confront the cultural constraints that underpin education and training in the UK.

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Principles behind the generation of adult education in local arenas

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How is adult education formed on the local level?

A Swedish school official recently characterised Swedish adult education as a "brilliant chaos" (Johansson, 1993). This expression does give a good description of the feeling that possesses most of those, even in other countries, who attempt to form an overall picture of adult education. Research has had similar difficulties in creating an overall view; often, individual forms of adult education have been studied. There is a need for research that cuts across different categories and representatives and investigates popular education, general education and vocational and other personnel training. Simple relations no longer exist between educational forms, functions and representatives. To be able to put together an overall picture of this chaos was one of the major aims of our research project.

The other central point was our desire to answer the question: "What principles are used by decision-makers on the local level?" Adult education is increasingly formed by local decision-makers, working with their own conditions and concepts. Decisions made on the national level in the area of adult education are lesser factors that have effect only together with other conditions. While this has always been the case, it has become more obvious during the last few years and is inherent in the shift of responsibility from the centre to the periphery that can be seen in the public sector and in large companies. Furthermore, this shift influences the ability to overview the actual state of adult education and how it functions.

We thus feel that knowledge of decision-making in the local arena is a key to understanding of how the real world of adult education is formed. Here, social scientific substantial theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) can be created on empirical grounds. It should be descriptive and not prescriptive (Ball, 1987). The existence and continued development of adult education requires empirically-based research on the actual state of adult education (Hake, 1992). The overriding goal is to give a foundation for the understanding of the phenomenon of adult education and how it actually functions.

To realise our ambition, we chose a county for a case study. Such a study makes it possible to obtain an overall view - not only of individual educational efforts, but also of how different efforts are interrelated. The analysis is a qualititative one.

Our project is therefore meant to describe the principles that decision-makers seem to follow in the area of adult education, what "subjective rationality" lies behind the existing adult education (Larsson *et al.*, 1986), what basic points have been used for making decisions and what conditions are indicated in decisions on:

1. The quantity of adult education.
2. Who receives adult education.
3. The content of adult education.

Consequently, the focus is on how adult education is actually and concretely created and upheld.

The individuals we study primarily are decision-makers who are significant for the formation of local education, such as directors of the national education system, persons responsible for training and education in businesses and companies and those who manage the functions of the employment service. The bases for interpretation are the actual results, decision-makers explanations of the background of the result and how these reflect ideas about adult education .

A line has been drawn by our interest in the education of people with less than a three-year high school education, i.e. we do not study all educational efforts in the county. Our resources have to this time not been sufficient for such a broad study and we were thus forced to make a choice. This delineation is motivated by our long tradition in the study of persons with limited educations, which in turn is motivated by a normatively-based interest in the role of adult education from a perspective of equality (Fransson & Larsson, 1989). This perspective has also dominated the sociology of adult education (Rubenson, 1989). In addition, observing adult education from this perspective has deep roots both internationally (Titmus, 1989) and in Sweden (Ball & Larsson, 1989).

A great deal of research in adult education in Sweden has focused on the relation of people with limited educations to the education and knowledge society. We wish to follow this tradition in our project. Thus, for example, the interest in education among people with limited educations has been studied in representive samples of persons within the country (e.g. Rubensson, 1975) and in phenomenologically-oriented interviews with adults in this category (e.g. Alexandersson & Thång, 1987, Larsson, 1992, Larsson & Thång, 1985). The relationship between the work tasks of people with limited educations and an interest in adult education has been the object of detailed interview studies (e.g. Larsson *et al.*, 1986, Thång, 1989).

The project was started in 1992 and data has been collected during the year that has now passed.

Decisions on the quantity of adult education

The majority of adult education programmes is established by a great number of decisions on different levels. Decision-making in central national authorities and the Riksdag (the Swedish parliament) are particularly important for publicly-financed efforts. In recent times, county decisions have become increasingly important. Decision-making in the area of personnel training is often on the local level and decentralisation efforts have recently strengthened this trend.

Detailed statistics on the actual scope of adult education show that a large proportion of the adult population participates annually - more than half the Swedish population. Statistics also show that this participation is very varied in its scope and that most participants' studies are very limited in terms of number of hours.

Much thought has been devoted to the question of participation in adult education, particularly in international comparisons. Traditionally, participation in Swedish adult education has been considered to be especially numerous. However, it has been maintained that education levels in industry are low and personnel training programmes small. As regards persons with limited educations, it is true that there is little participation in personnel programmes.

Policy studies have treated the motives of decision-makers in their choice of the quantity of adult education, but only in publicly-financed programmes. Of course, decision-making in Government and the Riksdag is a significant part of the background of which educational programmes are offered, but still constitutes only one important piece in a larger puzzle. The need to study the premises for local decision-making is emphasised by the wave of decentralisation in the public and private sectors.

What lies behind different groups' proportion of participation?

There is a lot of statistics on Swedish conditions. It can be confirmed that participation is unequal, although perhaps less so than in certain other countries. There have also been studies of what underlies the differences between participation among different groups. However, much less attention has been given to the considerations of education organisers and purchasers about what motivates greater efforts within certain groups. A small study was carried out on the views of those responsible for education concerning the education of non-skilled workers (Larsson *et al.*, 1986, Larsson, 1992). This showed a very narrow view held by the responsible persons, in which learning opportunities for the non-skilled were directly associated with actual work tasks. Because the workers lacked vocational educations, they worked areas in which education was not necessary; thus these workers seldom received any personnel training.

Studying the motives and barriers for participation is a classic area of adult education research and has had its base in the choice of the individual:

"The decision makers in the public, private, and proprietary sectors who offer learning opportunities are always subject to the decision makers, the adult participants themselves, who select the programs in which they wish to participate." (Charters in Titmus, 1989, p. 392.)

This "individual choice" perspective is given in most studies of participation, whether qualitative (Ziegahn, 1992) or quantitative (Darkenwald & Valentine, 1990).

Individual choice is surely important information from the perspective of educational planning, but is of limited use in a study that is intended to gain an understanding of how participation by different groups is formed. It has its basis in the notion that adults choose education freely. Often and in many ways, it is not the adult who chooses (Stalker, 1993). In Sweden, it can be suggested that adults' learning efforts are increasingly dependent on the fact that other decision-makers have the power to decide. In personnel training, education is in principle a part of work. A large part of adult education is purchased by employment services to educate the unemployed. The individual's choice may be formally his own in other cases, but in practical areas there is actually little choice. Others decide.

We thus feel that there is cause to examine the ideas of important decision-makers on whom they think should be educated and why.

Decisions on content

The content of adult education must be chosen - there is nothing obvious in what it should contain - and the choice occurs on many different levels. Jarvis (1989) identifies six:

"it is possible to see purpose at a number of different levels, namely; the learner, the teacher, the teacher - learner transaction; the educational institution; the prescribing agency; the government. Influence over the selection of content can be exercised at each of these levels..." (p. 25).

Different levels have different bases of power. The adult, potential student has an effect via his choice of course or education, when choices exist. This freedom to choose is often limited, as Stalker (1993) has already pointed out. However, in popular education it is often great. The influence on content in an already existing group was common in Swedish popular education in early times (Ambjörnsson, 1988), but is now seldom seen. Now it is an influence by choice of course. In municipal adult education, teachers rarely affect important decisions on content, but have greater influence on working methods.

Important decisions are often made on the institutional level. The direction of personnel training is often determined by the leadership. The content of courses offered by the municipal adult education system is often decided by school administrators by offering certain courses or by other local actors (employment services) that purchase courses. These decision-makers are influenced by national frameworks, curricula etc. and by the demands of students. National decisions exercise their effect via curricula, by financial subsidisation of specific types of content etc. There is also influence via campaigns run by the national education association. This has become weaker in Sweden, especially in the most recent years.

A study of a county was conducted in Sweden, in which the focus was on content; Ekman (1992) found a clear relationship between the direction of adult education and local lifestyles. The central point was then not decision-makers, but the distribution of adult education in terms of different types of content. As regards the background for what is offered in popular education, there are a number of historic studies of educational views in popular education that are devoted to this question (e.g. Arvidsson, 1985), focusing on the perspective of key persons on the national level.

Our conclusion is that local education administraters are often key persons in the formation of the content of adult education. What are the principles that they follow when they make their choice?

Conclusion

There is a need to study the premises for local decision-making, whether it is an expression of educational views, economic considerations or something else. The project thus aimed to first describe the adult education structure on the local level as regards quantity, content and the distribution of participants according to background. Using this as a starting point, we intend to analyse the "subjective rationality" that underlies the formation of an actual adult education structure. How do decision-makers define the situation? What implicit assumptions on the meaning of education do they use? *To understand the principles that decision-makers use and that underlie the formation of the local education structure is the main purpose of the project.* It can be said that we wish to describe the actual "curriculum" that the existing adult education programme follows, and whether it concerns an open or hidden curriculum. With this analysis as a background, a discussion can be conducted on the educational situation of individuals with short educations and changes in this.

Theoretical Starting Points

Two aspects of theory are relevant here, having to do first with the view of the research object and second with the view of the research process. These aspects are related in the sense that, in our case, there is a thought process with roots in symbolic interactionism that can be observed in both views.

The Research Object

On a local level, this concerns a study of the local society. There is a strong anthropological and sociological tradition with which this may be associated in terms of origins (Klausen, 1984). The foundation of the tradition is that efforts are interpretive, analyses qualitative and results determined by understanding rather than causal explanations of phenomena. The primary logic in the concept of understanding lies in the fact that individual parts are related to wholes. The individual phenomenon is given meaning by being put into a context. Another aspect is the orientation of research toward discovering patterns in the whole rather than testing hypotheses.

Starting in a local context can result in a better description of the significance of different phenomena than a study of separate phenomena. It is a decisive advantage to examine cases in order to see individual phenomena in relation to their total context. In our case, to form an understanding, we must relate individual educational efforts to relevant contexts. These contexts can on a general level be composed of relationships concerning the local material structure, e.g. employment, but also the relevant local cultural structure. Education activities are furthermore dependent on different material conditions for adult studies that are offered for example by the Government and that lie outside the direct influence of the local society.

There are different traditions in views of the relation of parts to the whole. Some see the relation as a very close one, as in an organism or in an ecological system, in which all parts are dependent upon all other parts. Others see the relation as more limited, where the parts have a more independent position and where the contexts can be limited. We relate ourselves to the latter tradition. Our theoretical starting point is an ethnographic strategy with roots in symbolic interactionism. We can thus associate with the so called Chicago school, which spawned a number of studies of local societies (Faris, 1967).

In such a theoretical framework of interpretation, individuals and their concepts are given a determined role for actions. The individuals' ideas have their origins in the interaction between individuals in both a broad sense, via their childhood and adolescent backgrounds, and in a narrower sense, via social circles in specific environments. The object of the individuals' interpretations limits the variation in interpretation but also allows a variation (Blumer, 1969). One might see this as a possibility for cultural variations.

Our research is thus characterised by an interest in studying how different actors in the local society interpret their relationships and act in relation to adult education. There is also interest in what relationships one chooses to see as relevant in decisions of significance for the local structure of adult education. Inspiration is found in e.g. Ball (1987), who speaks of "micropolitics". He argues for an understanding of the school's organisation through detailed studies respecting not only its complexity but also the method of creation of its activities by actors with different goals, taking into consideration conflicts that affect the direction of activities and the ideological background of the conflicts.

Our study does not intend to generate knowledge in organisational theory but rather in theory on adult education. Thus the focus is not on forms of decision-making but on the content of decision-making.

This is a matter of decision-makers in counties or industry and their reasoning in drawing up education budgets and transforming financial resources into actual education. An interesting thing here is the relationships that these actors see as relevant in decisions on adult education. Especially important are the contexts to which adult education are related. Another interesting thing is the process, including actions between different interests, that occurs in this context.

In summary, it can be said that three major points give structure to the study. The first is that individuals are seen as actors who interpret the
world around them and who interact. The second is that the individuals interpret different material and administrative conditions and act within the framework of their interpretations. The third is that agreement in interpretation can be seen as a sign of cultural affiliation. One can say that material and administrative conditions, together with agreement in interpretation, constitute the context of the activities.

The Research strategy

A look at the research process shows an association with strong traditions in efforts in ethnographic methodology as well as a lively debate on methodology. This has its roots in questions on the study of foreign cultures, but has become an increasingly more important impulse in school research during the last decades. Much literature on methodology has been published (see e.g. Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983, Hammersley, 1989, Glaser & Strauss, 1967, Blumer, 1969).

Certain core points are probably common to most published thought on this issue. First, data collection is characterised by the use of several different types of data, often observation, interviews of informants and register or different types of quantitative data. Different pieces of data are integrated into a whole by qualitative analysis. Research is frequently characterised by the repeated collection of data and by study over longer periods of time. One can say that data collection and the analysis of data are rather closely tied, as in most other designs. Preliminary results of an analysis lead to the collection of data that can develop these results further.

In this project, analysis has much to do with determining what lies behind the different decisions made. And thus it has to do with interviewing persons who are particularly familiar with the conditions, i.e. to form a picture of both decision-making and its bases, which then relates it to key persons in county administration and economic life and to organisers. Because we have chosen the county as a unit, we cannot acquire an overview of the whole via participating observation. Thus interviews with informants are given special importance. We must use their familiarity with different parts of the everyday life of the municipality that are relevant to adult education. Other significant material is local statistics.

Some Preliminary Results

We use as examples the very preliminary results of interviews with decision-makers at large work places and some of the most important organisers of adult education in the county. As we have just started our project, these analyses are fairly rough and have a limited basis. However, certain regular themes can be seen in ideas on educational efforts.

The following presentation of preliminary results has to do with personnel training in industry and public administration and education of the unemployed. No analysis has yet been made of municipal adult education and popular education.

How much education?

Industry

There are ten industries which statistics showed to have over 100 employees (some had at the time of the interview fewer employees owing to dismissals). Seven were textile industries, one a packaging industry, one a paint manufacturing industry and one was involved in the production and distribution of electricity.

Production must not be disturbed

As regards the collectively employed, the rule of thumb is that production must not be disturbed. This means that learning opportunities are always a marginal phenomenon, sensitive to ups and downs in the economy. An example is an industry with a downswing in orders. Training is introduced to make use of employees' slack time. This was interrupted because a decision has been made instead to cut down the number of employees. There is no longer time for training.

Minimal costs

Another rule of thumb for the collectively employed is that training must not imply any significant costs. This means it can be offered: a. If there is a shortage of work that has not yet led to dismissals (see the example above). b. When training can be united with productive work, e.g. wait times can be used to give training in new work tasks. c. When education is financed by external financers, e.g. LAN (County Labour Board) and Arbetslivsfonden (Working Life Found).

Training is motivated by short-term considerations

With few exceptions, training is not motivated by long-term considerations. It is introduced on the basis of various current events or decisions and to solve concrete problems. A typical example is the purchase of a new machine and the need for training employees to operate it. In two cases, personnel were trained as a part of efforts to effectivise production through introduction of new technology.

The Government bears responsibility for efforts motivated by long-term considerations

A deviation from the pattern is the education offered with Government financing which is related to unemployment in the textile industry. There is a long-term plan to broaden competence among a group of unemployed people who previously worked in that industry. They receive training in machinery with which they have not worked earlier. It is a long training period (20 to 40 weeks), but includes relatively few individuals. Over a longer period, however, a large number of textile industry workers have received this training. Such education belongs to a grey area between the Government's training efforts in the labour market and personnel training. A division of tasks may eventually be established between industry and Government, with the latter bearing responsibility for long-term investments and the former for efforts motivated in the short term.

The majority of employees have not received opportunities to develop competence

The effect of decision-makers' views of education was that the large majority of the collectively employed in larger industries in the county received no training at all in the past two years. Neither have they been included in any alterations in the work organisation or other changes in work tasks.

Personnel training in public administration

Employers here are the county and the hospital. The county operations that have been studied so far are primarily childcare, care for the elderly and central administrative activities. Learning opportunities in these areas are of significantly greater quantity than what is found in industry. Most employees have participated in or had the opportunity to participate in at least some type of training. A certain difference is seen from industry in terms of a generally more education-friendly culture.

The most comprehensive and vigorous personnel training is found in childcare. During 1991/1992, almost 50 short training courses and more than ten study circles were offered. The county also allotted funds for

about ten local development projects and a small number of day-long symposia on areas of current interest. In elderly care, another very personnel-intensive operation, the range of training was considerably smaller.

Training related to work tasks, but not as strictly as in industry
The training of personnel with limited educations is related to work tasks and organisatorial changes. Production demands seem not to affect the scope of training as strongly, even though countless educational efforts are primarily actualised on the grounds of changes in operations. There is a weaker connection between concrete work task and training. Examples are theme days devoted to research on and experience in elderly care for all personnel.

The Government is responsible for efforts motivated by long-term considerations
Access to government financing steers the scope of efforts to a great degree. The opportunity to increase basic competence by government support was exploited to give 75 of the county's 300 hospital ancillary staffers an education corresponding to a two-year high school education. They thus received another formal competence. Education efforts are otherwise of considerably smaller scope - one week or less.

Educating the unemployed

The decision-maker in this case is the county employment service. During the ongoing economic recession, this is probably the county's most important decision-maker as regards adult education. A total of 1,167 people were unemployed in November 1992. During the whole year, roughly 300 persons participated in some form of education motivated by unemployment. In total, about 1,000 unemployed people in the county participated in training efforts for the labour market in 1992.

Who receives education?

Industry

Training for the collective, not the individual
The situation for the collectively employed is that they are nearly always given training as a collective, i.e. all employees at a certain section or all who belong to a certain category. The basic consideration is not the individual but the work task. Neither is thought given to the need for training of indivduals having or lacking certain competence. Workers are seen, so to speak, as a homogeneous collective.

As regards any kind of advancement, a choice is made of individuals whose education is supported. In our material, there were a few examples of this, where certain financial support was given to some workers who took part in continuing education, but not to others. The decision has been made according to who has been seen as "advanceable". Another case that differed from the general pattern was that of some workers who were dismissed owing to cutdowns but who received training at their own work place, paid by government funds. An individual selection occurred here, based on who was seen as suitable.

Work tasks determine who receives training
Different aspects of the production situation lie behind decisions as to which groups are given training, primarily if time is available because production does not claim the entire work force at all times.

Changes in the production apparatus constitute another such circumstance. Those who will be working with a new machine are given competence.

The sum of this is that the individual's education directly reflects the work tasks that he or she has had. Other background factors seldom play any role.

Training personnel in public administration

Mixed pattern

In some cases, concrete work tasks are determinant. This may for example apply to learning opportunities for different levels of secretaries who are required to master new computer programmes. Thus it is a question of directly work-related qualifications in which the employer sees himself as being forced to invest. However, there is some training among the groups mentioned that is not motivated by narrow occupational motives. Thus a week-long training period may be conducted for all levels of secretaries in the county with the aim of strengthening the group in its professional role and building self-confidence. This is an example of education that is motivated from psychological and socio-psychological bases and from aspects of equality.

In some cases the collective receives training, while participation is voluntary in other cases. In the area of childcare, personnel have opportunities to propose and initiate training themselves according to the needs they perceive and their own interests.

Individual need as a basis for selecting long-term efforts

A selection was made in long-term efforts in elderly care in the county, based on lack of education, i.e. no previous training in the care sector. Employees who had followed a 16-week care course beyond the compulsory school or basic 9-year education were not admitted to the programme. In other words, the level of education among the ancillary staff, who make up the largest personnel group in elderly care, is very low. It was necessary to formulate careful criteria because of the great interest in this course among the personnel. Owing to scarce financing, this opportunity was offered only once. However, close cooperation developed between the elderly care sector and the municipal adult education efforts that resulted in the inclusion of this course in the framework of the municipal adult education's regular course offerings, although not as part of the work schedule but on free time and not as personnel training.

Educating the unemployed

Two forms of training for the labour market are found in the county. One is so called labour market training in companies and the other is purchased by different education organisers for different groups or individuals. The aim of this training in companies is primarily to avoid dismissing employees. Two important principles in the distribution of resources are fairness between different branches and the prioritisation of smaller and middle-sized companies that invest in different development efforts. However, a very limited number of individuals is affected by this form.

The most important principles in the selection of individuals or groups to be given training are (a) the judgements made concerning the individual's possibility for steady work, (b) the risk of long-term unemployment, especially among young people (18-25 years), (c) the need for stronger basic educations of persons with limited educations and (d) different immigrant groups. One further principle is to help persons who can demonstrate an ability to obtain work if they have a certain education. Such people often have good chances of obtaining financing for the training in question.

What kind of training?

Industry

Managing concrete work tasks or learning by performing other work tasks

There is a very concrete and narrow association between work task and training. Changes in work tasks are the forerunner of training plans. Training with a broader content requires external financing and is a question of broadening competence by an apprenticeship approach to learning new machines; work rotation is the basic model. Behind this is a view of education in which the position in the work organisation is directly related to what is seen as qualification criteria. The collectively employed have little opportunity to use a broad spectrum of skills, while white collar workers have greater possibilities. This characterises the choice of content.

Personnel training in public administration

Greater general competence and formal competence

As regards long-term efforts, the starting point is in formal education and a later adjustment of this to particular purposes. There seems to be notions in the care sector of competence in the form of formal examinations that do not exist in industry. The content then becomes comparatively more general in relation to concrete work tasks. This somewhat looser relation between specific work task and education can also be felt in learning opportunities in which all personnel do or can participate, independent of their position in the organisation. In childcare, some types of training exist that aim toward giving personnel a perspective of their own operations.

This is a very preliminary result. As we obtain more data, these results will be put into a larger whole. The patterns will also be defined more clearly when we obtain more data. The aim is also to run the analysis toward a greater degree of formalisation in the description of dynamics. In addition, the results shall be related to relevant theories and thus establish a dialogue with relevant traditions in thought.

Educating the unemployed

Training that occurs at the work place, as has been mentioned previously, is nearly without exception practical training chiefly in the form of work rotation. Theoretical aspects are extremely limited or lacking completely. Individual training efforts, or efforts oriented toward a particular group, are very varied, and can be anything from supplementary education on the high school level for unemployed youth to training in the Swedish language and social studies for immigrants. An example of cooperation between the employment service and a local education organiser is the so called "Labour Market School", which is a collective name for learning opportunities for the unemployed initiated by a number of union organisations. An educational association, ABF, runs the school and conducts its courses. In the programme, a group of long-time unemployed construction workers could be offered supplementary studies in different subjects (Swedish, mathematics, data etc.) on a full-time basis. A new motive for educating the unemployed also appears here, namely the wish to preserve occupational competence that otherwise runs a great risk of being lost.

Some conclusions

Who decides

Decisions are made locally in personnel training. Leadership on different levels nearly always determines the scope, selection of participants and orientation. There is some degree of voluntary action in the public sector. A characteristic in this area is the lack of long-term plans for training and education. Training is initiated in acute situations. Investments are seldom made directly in personnel competence for a return in the long term. Investments occur in production changes, which may have an indirect effect in the form of training.

Efforts that are motivated for the long term are made in programmes that fall in a grey area between personnel training and nationally ruled activities; the Government or funds established by it pay all costs or a minimum of half the cost, although decision-making takes place in discussions between representatives of the Government (the employment service) or funds and the employer and the union. The employment service or fund has the final world. The indirect significance of this is that decision-making via the Government and Riksdag mean nearly everything for the scope of long-term efforts. The initiative lies with companies and administrations. The result of this is that the larger work places receive the lion's share, as they are best informed of the different possibilities. Orientation and selection occur on the local level.

For the unemployed, the employment service has the greatest power. The influence of the individual on decisions is based on his ability to propose and argue for the type of training he desires.

The local network

Cooperation between municipal adult education and industry is very limited as regards continuing education for those with limited education. Adult education in the county has relations with personnel training in the public sector and other public authorities such as organisations for receiving refugees. The employment service or private organisers of education are primary cooperative partners with industry. Popular education cooperates with unions and political organisations. To a limited extent, popular education also cooperates with the employment service and employees. The employment service cooperates with all and plays a very central role in making decisions on the most significant portions of adult education.

Future of the project

This is a concrete example of how to analyse conditions for the way in which education is generated in personnel training. In the continuation of the analysis, the data base will be improved and the analysis made deeper.

A further case should also be studied, choosing a county of another character. The county that we have now studied has a large proportion of people with short educations, is sparsely populated and is heavily dependent on the textile industry. Its unemployment level is average. In spite of this, the county is representative of many others, which appear in statistics as "problem children" in terms of competence.

To contrast this, a county should be chosen that shows strong competence in its population. It would also be desirable for there to be industry that can be considered to be successful in the future. The aim is to compare similarities and differences. Which principles pass the test? Which principles must be reformulated? Where does the chaos remain which was named at the beginning of this presentation?

Another effort is a by-project in which decision-making in the question of extra resources provided by the Government is studied in a large number of counties. This has primarily to do with municipal adult education and folk high schools.

Further work that should be conducted is a search for contacts to allow for comparisons with other studies in other countries, and in time perhaps the development of corresponding studies that can shed light on similarities and differences between countries. Comparative work of this type would be extremely valuable.

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Adult educators: issues of professionalisation

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Education is a lifelong process during which the fulfilment of personal, social and professional development of people is achieved. The humanistic ideal of lifelong education is contrasted to the so-called "front-end" model of education which presupposes that at a given stage during the life-span (between 16-25) the individual has acquired the knowledge and skills he needs (Jarvis 1988 : 32). Consequently, people's life-long learning has to be supported by organised eductional activities. During 1970s lifelong education is institutionalised under various forms of adult education.

Adult education is a broad term encompassing every organised activity which aims to educate adults during the life-span. It is a multifarious field of teaching, taking various forms, like continuing professional education, community education e.t.c. Generally speaking we can say that it embraces all forms of education of those considered adult by their society by any means and for any purpose (Duke 1989: p. 361).

Recent trends in adult education emphasize the need to respond to broader societal demands by pursuing objectives of an economic, political or cultural nature. It is related to all the aspects of our society, economical political or ideological, that means that its aims could be ranked at a continuum, at the one end of which the transmission of knowledge or the development of skills are placed while societal change could be placed at the other end. Besides, as every educational activity, adult education is a dynamic social process. That means it is socially constructed a) as far as the knowledge and values transmitted are concerned and b) as it is taking place in a social context. In this framework adult educators are confronting various demands, sometimes contradictory. They act as social agents who plan, organise and undertake various educational activities which are always related to socio-economic traits of the environment where they take place.

This paper is based on the assumption that adult educators, as professionals with an educative function have many similarities with initial education teachers. Lifelong education is a continuing process covering the life-span. Its foundations then lie at the first years of schooling, being conceptualised in a broad sense. Undoubtedly, enthusiasm for lifelong education is in danger of obscuring crucial differences between pre-adult and adult education such as the different developmental stage each is addressed to. But, in case this danger is taken into account, this conception has much to offer to both fields, initial and continuing education a) by the empowerment and diffusion of the ideal of lifelong education (in a Deweyan sense) and b) by the mutual transfer of kowledge (in terms of theory, research and experience).

An important remark deriving from this latter statement is that adult educators play a crucial role in the accomplishment of educational achivities. Recent findings of research on teachers and teaching support the view that the quality of schools is strongly related to the teachers' quality. Educational theory and research on educational reform on the other hand, emphasize the importance of implementation phase for the effectiveness of every attempt for school improvement, a phase where teachers play an important role.

From this point of view, issues concerning adult educators, such as their personal qualities, their attitudes, as well as matters of professionalisation are of great research interest and are dealt with in this paper. At a first part of the following analysis, the role of adult educator in terms of its general traits is schetched and problems concerning his professional profile are addressed. Secondly, empirical data on adult educatorãs role-perception from the greek context are presented and discussed. In the concluding part the discussion is focused on central points of adult educators' professionalisation.

Adult education as a professional activity

It is an extremely difficult undertaking to describe adult educator as a separate social role. This difficulty derives mainly from the diffused boundaries of adult education in terms either of its degree of institutionalization or of its aims. Many efforts to describe the teaching of adults as an occupation provide typologies which classify the tasks adult educators perform in a broad range of educational achivities offered by various providers. Thus we can, generally speaking, deem as an adult educator, every person who "fulfils an educational achivity addressed to adults" (Lesne 1985 : 303).

Teachers of adults and others working in the field of adult education,, such as policy makers and administrators tend to prefer other terms over teacher, like tutor, facilitator or animator. Trainer is commonly used in the vocational training sector and other terms are used in different settings, such as lecturer, counsellor or change agent. (Duke 1989 : 360). The area of adult education which had the largest growth is job-related education, consequently more people are engaged as adult educators in this field. They may be classified according to the function they fulfil, or according to whether they are engaged full or part-time in adult education (Frank 1989 : 101). Nevertheless, the majority of people who are classified as adult educators undertake the role on a part-time basis only (Jarvis 1988 : 180). Another three-fold division, made by Houle, is broader as encompasses every adult education provision. Houle distinguishes a) those who teach adults on a voluntary basis b) those who perform this and other educational roles for remuneration and c) full-time adult educators (Houle 1960 : 119-120).

Obviously, categories of adult educators depend on the adult education organisation in each country. A useful distinction could be made between the administrative and instructional roles of the full-time professionals, suggesting that they may perform both. Many part-time staff also have managerial than teaching responsibilities, but part-time and voluntary adult educators are more likely to be teachers of adults whereas the full-time staff perform a multifarious role (Jarvis 1988 : 181).

As far as the educational background and training of adult educators is concerned, there is a scarcity of systematic evidence. According to Jarvis "little empirical research is published either to demonstrate the expressed or felt needs of part-time or full-time staff for training or the extent to which provision was being made" (Jarvis 1988 :190). Nevertheless, there is an agreement, based on limited research evidence, that the basic educational background of adult educators is medium or high (Lesne, p. 298). But when they are appointed on the basis of their training prerequisites, the emphasis seems to be given only on the training on the subject. or skill they are to teach. The view that some qualities held to make a good adult educator are difficult to teach is widespread. In many countries adult educators are appointed on the basis of some recognized subject qualification but a professional teaching qualification is not usually requested, a fact underlying "the assumption that konwledge of a subject is equivalent to an ability to teach it" (Frank, p. 103). This assumption reflects a similar, strongly embodied view regarding teachers in general, that good teachers are born (Xochellis 1989 : 68). This widespread view diminishes the importance of educational training, and consequently the quality of adult education as well as its status as a profession. Lesne addresses the point that "adult education training fits to a model of non-training that means that adult educators usually improvise" (Lesne 1985 : 313).

A concluding point from the above analysis is that the job of training adults is not unitary but confused, diverse and fragmented, reflecting to some extent the broad and diffuse nature of adult education as a field. It could be also characterised as marginal as the majority of people training adults work on a part-time basis usually without formal prerequisites. Besides, if the differential status of an occupation may be reflected in the role-player's own perception of this occupation, the situation remains also unclear. Some who are actually teachers of adults may not regard themselves as such, since they see themselves as engineers, language teachers e.t.c. On the other hand, some part-time adult educators may be employed full-time in another occupation and define their Occupational role in terms of that. Additionally, as a lot of them feel insecurity, their job is characterised by low-status (Frank : 104).

The scarcity of research evidence and the extremely context-bounded character of adult educator's role, stress the need of investigating its multi-facet dimensions empirically. The following short description of the present situation of adult education in Greece, combined with empirical data on adult educators' role perception, give an example of how some of the points already addressed can become more concrete in a specific context.

Adult educators in the Greek context

Adult education is gradually expanded from the 1980s in Greece to respond to the growing demands for continuing education so much as for the upgrading of various groups of adults' general education as for job-related training. Many providers from the public and private sector organise adult education activities, a large portion of which is controlled by the government (economically and administratively) whereas the role of Local Authorities is restricted. Besides, many enterprises provide on-the -job training for their staff (Papanaoum 1989 :101-109).

According to a recent research on the training needs of enterprises, a 28% of large enterprises provide organised training service whereas only the 12% of the training activities is based on systematic needs analysis. As a result, the role of external consultant is gradually augmented ("Kerdos" 1993 :14). Concerning the occupational situation of adult educators, the evidence is very limited. As far as their educational prerequisites are concerned, there is not systematic training in adult education apart from few courses provided by Universities and Associations. A large part of the adult education training is provided by the employing agencies under the form of intensive seminars.

The research evidence which follows is based on questionnaire data from the first phase of a project aiming to investigate the role of adult educator in Greece. The respondends were working as trainers at two governmental providers of adult education a) The Popular Education Secretariat and b) The Greek Productivity Center.

The Popular Education Secretariat is controlled by the Ministry of Education and aims to respond to the educational needs of various social groups and individuals by providing a broad range of courses all over Greece. Apart from people working as members of Popular Education Counsils on a full-time basis, the teaching staff is part-time. Prerequisites for the appointment of the teaching staff are a Degree a Higher Education or experience on the subject and teaching experience. Every year, seminars are provided for people working as adult educators without however including courses on adult education.

The Greek Productivity Center is controled by the Ministry of National Economy and provides annually a lot of job-related educational programs aiming to respond to the needs of the public and private sector. The main criteria according to which the teaching staff is appointed - on a part-time basis, are knowledge of the teaching subject (certified by degrees) or practical experience and teaching experience. About the 10% of the teaching staff have attended intensive seminars on job-related training.

The apparent similarities and dissimilarities of these providers make interesting the investigation of how people employed there as trainers are conceptualizing central issues concernig their job. The research questions, mainly open- ended, were focused on three main topics a) how do the respondends conceptualise their role as adult educators b) in what extent the aims of adult education are clear to them and c) how do they evaluate their working conditions. Descrtiptive data on their educational background and teaching experience have been used for enriching the picture.

Among the 14 respondends working at Popular Education, five had a Degree of Higher Education and two had attended a seminar on adult education. They were 29 to 56 years old and had a training experience of 1 to 12 years. Most of them conceptualize adult education in general as an opportunity for people to make worthy their leisure time in terms of personal development. Impressive is the finding that some trainers consider adult education as an alternative to crucial personal problems such as loneliness. Some consider it as a means of lifelong education mainly in terms of knowledge and skills. Few of the respondends express an opinion for the aims of job-related education emphasizing its continuous vocational training value. The way they conceptualize the qualities of a "good" adult educator is more concrete as almost all of them emphasize the subject knowledge and skills whereas experience is deemed less important. Highly valued also are personal qualities such as, patience, politeness, respect for the students. Knowledge and skills are rarely mentioned whereas only one stresses the need of educational training. Finally the main problems they confront are related to some students' irresponsibility, indifference or passivity. They stress, on the other hand, organisational problems such as scarcity of resources, but only one mentions the low rewards. An interesting point is that most of them are trying to surpass difficulties by themselves stressing the importance of personal efforts.

All trainers working at Greek Productivity Center who participated in the research (13) had a Degree of Higher Education and postgraduate studies and 9 of them attended seminars on adult education. They were 30 to 54 years old with a training experience of 1 to 25 years on specific subjects such as economy, technology or buiseness administration. They had also experience on the organization of training seminars. They conceptualize the aims of adult education in a narrow sense as job-related specific training and stress as high priority aims the continuous training on new technologies, the deepening of basic knowledge e.t.c. As ultimate aim they deem professional upgrading. Regarding the qualities of a "good" adult educator, they emphasize educational knowledge and skills especially in teaching methodology whereas subject knowledge and skills are taken for granted. On the other hand, they emphasize skills of communication and creation of good "atmosphere". Almost all of them consider the role of trainer as decisive for the success of training emphasising its skills of organising a seminar. An interesting point however is that they don't stress the need of trainer's training on educational subjects, probably because they think it is compensated by practice. The difficulties stressed are mainly related to students' problems such as their heterogeneity, their lack of interest e.t.c. They mention that they surpass these problems by communicating the seminar objectives to the students, by encouraging participation e.t.c. Besides they emphasise the criteria of selection of students as well as of trainers.

Obviously the evidence described briefly above is not enough to support valid conclusions in terms of generalisability and comparison, as it has only an investigating character. The differences then of the two groups of respondends are valuable as reflecting relevant differences of the providers in terms of orientation and organisation but they are useful only for formulating hypotheses for future research.

However there are some points which can be addressed, based on the above analysis. A first one is that people working as adult educators are not systematically trained as such. The fact then that they feel as professionals on their subject, who occasionally work as part-time trainers in adult education, as well as their context-bounded conception of the aims of adult education could be due to this lack of training. Secondly, the way some of them realise various problems related to adult education provision and the way they surpass them support the assumption that teaching practice combined with personal awareness and interest could compensate at some extent the lack of systematic training, at least as far as teaching methodology is concerned.

The need of professionalisation

A crucial point to be addressed at this final part is to examine whether the job of training adults could or should be considered as a profession.

Nowadays, the long discussion concerning the traits which distinguish the professions from the non-professions is diminishing in favour of a more dynamic approach according which all types of occupations can achieve a professional status through the process of professionalisation. That means that they can move towards the upper end of a continuum where the ideal-type professions are placed. The value of this conceptualisation derives from the fact that it assumes a dynamic process through which every occupation can improve in terms of some quality criteria.

Despite the fact that professions are differentiated from other types of occupations depending on societal and historical conditions, the wide literature on this topic offers broadly accepted qualities which characterise a profession. Houle stresses as criteria of a profession a)a universal social recognition b) a highly complex body of verified and widely acceptd knowledge and c) the existence of a group of persons trained in a rigorous discipline and organised in such a way as to enforce conformity to its standards of behavior (Houle 1960 :124). According to Social Sciences Dictionary (Unesco 1972 : 255), "As professions are considered those occupations which presuppose specific knowledge and skills acquired through systematic theoritical education and training. This knowledge and skills are officially certified and provide professionals with a high level of authority. Additionally, Houle strsses the point that a profession performs a crucial social function and entails socialisation into professional values (Hoyle 1980 : 45). If a professional then is to accomplish his role , he deserves autonomy, responsibility and involvement in decision-making, as well as control over his working conditions and career prospects. Finally, as a result of their high specialization and their social function, professionals achieve high rewards and social status.

On the basis of these criteria, someone could agree with Jarvis who considers that "adult education conforms closely to those occupations genarally regarded as semi-professions" (Jarvis 1988 : 205) or with Lesne who argues that "adult educators are not professionals but they belong to an occupational group which moves toward the way of professionalisation (Lesne 1985 : 307).

Is it important then that adult education should be regarded as a profession ? Professionalisation is a process of upgrading every working situation as it entails a strong educational background as well as a consciousness of its social dimension. Consequently, if adult education provision is to profit in terms of quality, educators have to achieve a professional profile . In this direction the role of their training has to be considered in its core dimensions, technical, educational and social. Trends like the one arguing that the professionalisation of adult education is contrasted to basic tenets of andragogy , like the democratisation of the educative function, are apparently opposite. Professionalism in adult education, as in education in general, has a deep democratic dimension as it guarantees a high quality educational provision for all the members of the society.

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A Conceptual Framework for Developing Adaptive Competency for Professionals

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A profession "may be (considered as) a fundamental social process embedded in the relationship between society and those who practice certain expert occupations" (Forsyth and Danisiewicz, 1985,p.60). The use of the term "expert" implies competent performance. Developing competent professional workers is the primary objective of professional education programs. Stark, Lowther, and Hagerly (1986) identified six types of professional competence that appear to be sought in all or most professional preparation programs: (1) conceptual competence,(2) technical competence, (3) contextual competence, (4) interpersonal conununication competence,(5) integrative competence, and (6) adaptive competence.

The sense in which the term "competence" is used is the level of proficiency that professional program faculty expect a new entrant to the profession to demonstrate. While some have suggested that professional "proficiency" would be a better term, as competence implies a minimal level of performance, others suggest a performance continuum from competence to proficiency to mastery, with mastery resulting from considerable work experience (Scheffler, 1965; Collins, 1983; Knox, 1986).

Stark et al (1986) found that although variations existed among fields, reactions of 2,230 professional program faculty in 10 fields indicated that each of these competencies is quite important. The 10 fields surveyed included architecture, business administration, education, engineering, journalism, law, library science, nursing, pharmacy, and social work. Significantly, of the articles concerned with educational outcomes in professional journals reviewed by Stark et al, adaptive competence was the outcome represented least frequently.

The importance of adaptive competence seems obvious. Professionals are confronted with an unprecedented requirement for adaptability and anticipation. Appleberry summarised the problem. He claims that the sum of humankind's knowledge has doubled from 1750 to 1900; doubled again from 1900 to 1950; doubled again from 1950 to 1960; and again from 1960 to 1965. It is estimated that the total of humanldnd's knowledge has doubled once every five years since then, and that by the year 2010, knowledge will double every 73 days (1992: 26).

The massive amount of new, and possibly relevant, information generated each year combined with the belief that everything must be covered, has resulted in unbalanced professional curriculum, The part of the curriculum concerning the acquisition of information has grown at the expense of other desirable outcomes (Paprock, 1990,1992; Armistead, 1987) including adaptive competence. Traditionally, this motivation to enhance and update information has carried over to be the driving force for much continuing education by professionals (Houle, 198 1; Nowlen, 1988; Cervero, 1988).

Adaptive competence is the graduate's ability to adjust to new conditions inherent in a rapidly changing technological society. Because professional practice is dynamic rather than static, adaptive competence implies a futuristic orientation so that graduates can anticipate and prepare for changes that might affect their practice (Knox, 1990; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Simerly & Associates, 1987). More specifically, adaptive competence is the propensity to modify, alter or change elements of professional practice or professional community; it is a capacity advocated as a mechanism to ensure relevant and controlled professional change (Hughes et al, 1973).

Background

Although a large amount of literature on change processes appears relevant to the practising professional, fewer articles in the educational journals directly discuss how to incorporate a sense of the need for future change as part of students' professional preparation.

The classic concept of adaptation has its roots in two disciplines: biology and physiology. In biology, the general meaning of adaptation relates to the adjustment of a particular species to the environmental conditions under which it must live if it is to continue to survive. In physiology, adaptation has the meaning that it relates to a change in the magnitude of a sensory or motor response as a consequence of prolonged stimulation or uninterrupted responding by some bodily part In both instances there is a modification by which the organism or species is adjusted to meet the conditions that are present in the environment at that time.

Two general trends, *adaptation and organization*, appear in all the stages of the development of Learning. As experiences are amassed, the individual illustrates adaptation by generating a reasonable adjustment between the self and environment. This continual adjustment can be made because organization allows the individual to combine seemingly inconguous or constantly changing stimulus inputs into a manageable or coherent whole. Adaptation and organization can thus be interpreted as the general processes by which a person copes with the world.

Learning can be interpreted as the process of adapting to changing circumstances (George, 1970). Adaptive Learning occupies a central position in the general public image and conception of learning. However, this view has its shortcomings. In contrast to an anticipatory approach in learning, adaptive learning de-emphasizes human initiative. It implies a passive adjustment to external pressures.

Learning as adaptation implies that human beings can only react to follow new changes in a given environment, having no power to influence them. To be adaptable, i.e., to be able to change in response to changing circumstances, implies submitting to these circumstances and even succumbing to them. Similarly, the classical interpretation of learning as a change in the pattern of behavior on the basis of past experiences is too restrictive for innovation and anticipation.

Dunn (1971) has seen this limitation in how adaptation is viewed and presents two levels of adaptation. He referred to one aspect of learning as a process of matching with predetemiined or existing norms. This process of improving the goodness of fit in a given state of adaptation he called *specialized adaptation*. It refers to the rationalization of processes and structure usmg available resources for moving to the nearest level of adaptive fit. An example might be moving someone from low level skills to an acceptable level normatively defined.

However, this situation refers to a change in the capabilities of the individual and may not reflect a change in the norm that is predetermined. There, can be a change at the individual level that may enforce the *status quo* at the organizational, professional, or societal levels.

This can be seen as people consciously or unconsciously adopt the behaviour and belief systems of new social groups such as professions. Given the chance to observe and practice *in situ*. the behavior of members of a profession, people pick up relevant jargon, imitate behavior, and gradually start to act in accordance with its norm.

Adaptive Generalization refers to the process that improves the survival potential whether of an individual or a group. It is the aim of adaptive generalization to enhance the capacity as required to move to the next higher state of adaptation (1971: 75-112). Dunn's concepts are similar to the way that Jarvis interprets Argyris and Schon's Model I and Model 2 behavior. Jarvis says that, ' the first accepts the validity and inevitability of the experience while the latter questions the context in which it occurs' (1992: 60). The action of the person might only be a slight adaptation of a previous perfomance, but it could be an entirely new form of behavior. This occurs, according to Jarvis, 'when the actors fully understand the social situation but yet do not know precisely what the outcome of their action will be' (1992:61).

Implied in the discussion of adaptive generalization is the concept of anticipation. Anticipation is the capacity to face new, possibly unprecedented situations; it is the acid test for innovative learning processes. Anticipation is the ability to deal with the future, to foresee comming events as well as evaluate the medium-term and long-term consequences of current decisions and actions. It requires not only learning from experience but also "experiencing" vicarious or envisioned situations.

Anticipation can reveal, through simulations and scenarios, a wide class of possibilities and these possibilities may be future events which can and do influence not only changes in behavior, but also changes in preparation and purpose.

Petrie (1982) refers to concepts like adaptiveness in describing the flowing result of intelligence as it constantly adjusts actions to changes in situations and goals. Petrie defines enquiry as the processes involved in the growth of human knowledge, and learning as the processes leading to the growth of an individual's knowledge. One does so by focusing education and learning more generally on the two major kinds of human adaptiveness; *assimilation and accomodation*..

Within the general process of adaptation, Piaget (1968) also idenfified the two subprocesses of *assimilation and accomonodation*.. Actions that change the environment to better "fit" with the self represent assimilation. Actions that change the self to better adjust to the environment are called accommodation.

Discussion and Approaches

Occupations and professions are changing rapidly and at an increasing rate, and those in the workplace are, confronted with an unprecented requirement for adaptability. When today's students are in midcareer, practice will be different. Totter (,1983) reminds us that change takes place too rapidly to allow us the option of planning a future state that will be unaltered when we get there.

The knowledge that must be gained to be competent in just about any area has grown greatly. This knowledge explosion becomes further complicated in the practice arena where educators now talk about knowledge in terms of "half life", or the period of time before half of what one learns in school is obsolete.

Questions about what is truly essential are eemerging, and recognition is given to the fact that students need not learn everything within the confines of the university (Eisner, 1985). Apprenticeships, mentor programs, and other real-fife educational opportunities are becoming available while learning as a lifelong process is being acknowledged as well.

Fanner collected data through observation and interviews with 450 learners and instructors in the professions. The focus of this study was on what differentiates meaningful from meaningless Learning experiences. In this regard Farmer found it useful to use Ausubel, Novak, and Hanesian's (1978) view of Learning being in three forms: reception learning, guided inquiry, and autonomous learning. All three forms of learning can range from being meaningful to meaningless. Meaningful is defined as Learning in which individuals are helped to acquire needed knowledge, attutudes, and skills to help them to solve real-life problems that range from welldefined to ill-defined. It was found that education that was meaningful clustered around three areas of focus: content, problem-solving, and change and adaptation

Besides the obvious problem of overwhelming and sometimes not relevant infomation in an approach focusing on content, Revans (1983) notes that we all have numerous acquaintances who know all manner of things without being able to do them. Content-laden curricula tend to aim at the simple dissemination of a body of information without a corresponding focus on the application of that information.

The problem-based focus has gained some popularity especially in the area of medical education. Put simply, problem-based learning is designed to produce students that have both knowledge and ability to use that knowledge by providing a context and guidance. Heavy emphasis in this type of program is placed on helping students to be self-directed by tackling problems presented by faculty or in a clinical setting. Despite its popularity, Rogoff and Lave (1984) and Lave (1988) found that faculty and students are often less comfortable with academic problems in the program which may determine what kinds of responses are adaptive or maladaptive in given situations.

On the positive side, Rogoff and Lave claim that if we wish to prepare students to adapt and solve problems they will confront in their lives or in practice, then we must present realistic simulations of real problems not merely with problems that are tailored to our convenience because they are objectively scorable and not problems which have been removed from context

The content and problem-solving approaches closely resemble the first two models presented by Farmer (1983). The third model of the three Foci Models focuses first and foremost on adaptation necessitated by change brought about by human development, changes in the knowledge base, organizational change, and/or societal change; adaptation can be in the form of the need to assimilate - to learn to deal with difficulties without needing to change one's theory base, paradigm, or perspective - or to accommodate - to change one's theory base, paradigm, or perspective.

This approach requires identifying and prioritizing difficulties and anomalies to be addressed educationally. To understand this approach, one must consider situations in which the person may find him or herself and their adequacy of dealing with those situations. Such situations can involve the person personally, vocationally, and/or avocationally. Regarding the person's ability to deal with such situations adequately from his or her own or other's perspectives: (a) Some situations provide no difficulty for the person. The person can deal with those situations adequately using his or her current knowledge, attitudes, and skills. (b) Some situations provide a person with difficulties. A dfffcult situation is one in which the use of one's current knowledge, attitudes, and skills is almost adequate for dealing with the situation. To learn to deal with the dffficulty adequately, one needs to modify slightly one's current knowledge, attitudes, and skills. But one does not need to modify one's frame of reference. (c) Some situations, however, are anomalous. An anomaly is a situation with which one cannot deal adequately without dropping one frame of reference and changing to a different one which is adequate for use in dealing with the situation.

To the extent that the content-focus model or the difficulty-based part of the third model are called for in a situation, various forms of reception learning (i.e., reading, hearing, or observing) tend to be the instructional treatments of choice. Guided inquiry tends to be the most appropriate way for persons to learn to deal with anomalous situations.

Implications for Practice

Professions, like society as a whole, are in a constant state of dynamic change. For the individual such changes often demand significant reform in the nature of one's practice or in the very way in which one views the field. This type of change relates to an anomalous situation. Houle (1981) claims that such changes can cause a profession to make profound alterations in its delivery system or even to reconceptualize its collective mission.

If taken seriously by professionals and students, anomalies provide a cognitive conflict like a Kuhnian state of crisis that prepares the individuals' conceptual ftms for an acconunodation or generalized adaptation. Situations are not crises if normal behavior produces improvements. Crises are dangerous, in part, because normal behaviors make them worse. Crises call for strategic reorientations or "paradigm shifting".

If we as educators aim to produce rationally-based conceptual change, then according to what was said so far, the content of courses should be such that it renders theory intelligible, plausible, relevant, and meaningful. In order to give expression to these requirements more emphasis needs to be given adaptation, assimilation and accommodation, by professionals and students of that content than to "content coverage".

Adaptive competence is a three-part process: (1) sensing and detecting changing conditions in the internal and external environment that affect practice, (2) acknowledging the need to alter or adapt some mode of functioning, and (3) taking steps to initiate or accommodate the changes required, such as learning new skills (technical), embracing new knowledge (conceptual), or refocusing practice to meet new market demands (contextual). Thus, adaptive competence allows one to initiate or implement changes either as an individual practitioner or in the professional conununity.

Teaching strategies are typically thought of as clarifying content presented in texts and journals, explaining solutions to problems, demonstrating principles, providing laboratory exercises, and testing for recall of facts and ability to apply knowledge to problems. that is, teaching is for assimilation. Accommodfation needs to be seriously considered for future strategies. For teaching aimed at accommodation the following changes in approach are implied here: (1) Develop teaching methods which can be used to create cognitive conflict as preparation for accommodation, (2) Organize instruction so there is more tinie in diagnosing errors in thinking and resistance to accommodation, (3) Retrain faculty to the kinds of strategies which they can include in their repertoire to deal with errors that interfere with accommodation, (4) Help students to make sense of content by representing content in multiple modes, (5) Help students see wholes and interrelationships through a systems approach, and (6) Develop evaluation methodologies to help track conceptual change.

Summary

Many writers have discussed some of the concepts mentioned in this paper, Toffler comments on the cult of coverage of content by using the term "overchoice"', and states that "there, is so much that could be taught that it is almost impossible to decide what should be taught (1974: 105). He goes on to point out that society expects the educational system to fit their graduates for the future. Clearly, the educator must continue to attack the problem of overchoice by deciding what to exclude and what to include. To do this, Toffler argues "he must select concepts that are highly generalized and of wide application: What is change? What ideas will be useful to the person in coping with change? What is changing? What kinds of conflicts take place over change? Will they continue to take place? What is slow to change? How do we agree on what should be changed?" (I 974: 106).

What kind of adult will be necessary in the future was described by Tough twenty years ago, 'The adult learner of the future will be highly competent in deciding what to learn, in planning and arranging his own learning. He will successfully diagnose and solve almost any problem or dffficulty that arises. He will obtain appropriate help competently and quickly, but only when necessary' (1971: 170). Finally, Carl Rogers sums this up by stating that, ' faced with an entiirely new situation in education where the goal of education, if we are to survive, is *the facilitation of change and learning*; the only man who is educated is the man who has learned how to learn; the man who has learned how to adapt and change' (1969: 104).

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Instructors-as-Researchers-and-Theorists: Faculty Development in a Community College

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Introduction

This paper describes a community college faculty development program grounded in interpretive and critical viewpoints about research in adult education. The program is also grounded in the viewpoint that theory resides in practice and that theorizing is a form of social practice. The program is a prototype for a larger project aimed at the development of an Institute for Reflective Practice, a consortium of higher education institutions and private businesses. Instructors and trainers in these organizations will learn to be practitioners-as-researchers and theorists in practice. The near-term goal is to increase the number of instructors and trainers who are engaged in reflective practice, and the longer-term goal is for organizational members of the Institute to become learning organizations.

The prototype project involved three interacting activities:
(1) A small number of volunteer community college instructors formed a collaborative inquiry group (CIG) in which individual instructors were assisted in their attempt to improve their classroom practices through study and reflection; (2) Each instructor initiated intentional change in some aspect of his or her teaching, and this change served as the focus of individual and collaborative inquiry; and (3) The facilitator of the CIG, a university professor of adult education also, conducted phenomenological interviews with each instructor. Descriptions of instructor actions and reasoning were audio-tape recorded and transcripts were prepared for analysis by CIG participants. The interview questions were designed to uncover instructor beliefs, rules, motives and factual knowledge that formed their assumptions about teaching and learning. The three activities came together in the CIG meetings. The interview protocol data help focus group dialogue and discussion, and the results of group data analysis were used by instructors as a basis for further action in their classrooms. A new cycle of interviews followed these instructor initiatives, and the results were again the focus of group analysis and discussion. The CIG and individual instructor activities were guided by a four-part model for reflective practice developed by the author. This experience was repeated over the course of 18 months, involving regular meetings of CIG participants.

Preliminary results of the prototype project show that instructors were able to adopt additional roles of researchers and theorists, that instructors changed some of their assumptions about teaching and learning, and that the CIG activities served as a prototype of reflective practice. There was evidence of a paradigm shift on the part of several instructors, in terms of their view of research and theory. They appeared to shift from a positivist view to an interpretive or critical view. Evidence is being collected on the effect that instructor research projects are having on student achievement.

Purpose

This paper describes a community college faculty development program grounded in interpretive and critical viewpoints about research in adult education. The program is also grounded in the viewpoint that theory resides in practice and that theorizing is a form of social practice.

Background

Training and professional development in adult education can be seen as processes designed to link theory and practice. From the conventional viewpoint, training and development require some form of application of theory to practice. However, as several writers in adult education have pointed out, this is only one of at least three viewpoints concerning the relationship between theory and practice (Cervero, 1988; Usher, 1988; Usher and Bryant, 1989; Carr and Kemmis, 1986). In addition to theory applied to practice, theory can be seen as being located in the practice and in the meaning schemes of practitioners. A third view of this relationship places theory and practice in a socially-constructed single reality, so that theory and practice are mutually constitutive. From both of these latter viewpoints, theory is not something that is constructed outside of practice and applied to practice in the interest of improving it.

The three viewpoints about the relationship of theory and practice can be mapped onto three other viewpoints about the nature of research in adult education (Merriam, 1991). In the first, a positivist viewpoint, the researcher is located apart from any phenomenon being researched, and the assumptions that support this view are somewhat analogous to the assumptions undergirding the "theory applied to practice" viewpoint. The second viewpoint about research may be called the "interpretive" viewpoint, and the interpretive view assumes that there are multiple realities, not a single, objective world. In this view, a researcher interested in understanding human action would focus on how people make sense of their world, and the researcher may legitimately become involved in constructing that life world. This also means that one focus of interpretive research can be practical knowledge produced within the life world of the research subject. This view of research is roughly analogous to the viewpoint that theory resides in practice. The third viewpoint on research is the critical paradigm. In this paradigm, knowledge begins in the world of the subject and is possibly a vehicle for individual and social change. This view corresponds to the view that theory and practice are indivisible and are part of a single reality; change in one involves the other. Thus, these viewpoints generally implicate practice as much as they do research, if indeed research and practice are separable at all (Peters, 1991a, p. 431).

The viewpoints about the relationship of theory and practice inform the design and management of training and development programs. It is easy to see how (at least in Western societies) the majority of educators frame their decisions about knowledge and its transfer in the positivist viewpoint, given the nature of their own training. It is also easy to identify differences in the espoused theories and theories-in-action held by adult educators, when in program after program, and institution after institution, the value of learners' experiences is at once both acclaimed and ignored as a basis for design and management of training activities. It is hard to find training programs designed in the context of the second and third viewpoints, though they indeed exist (Hall and Kassam, 1989; Schon, 1983; Bell, Gaventa and Peters, 1990).

The viewpoints about the nature of research and reality also inform the design and management of training and development, though the connection is not as obvious as the connection between the theory/practice viewpoints and training and development. This is due to the concept of researcher held by most adult educators. The researcher is generally seen as a person who holds a job in a university or some other research institution, and he or she has duties and interests quite different from the "practitioner" (the one who does real work). The researcher discovers knowledge, and the knowledge is somehow made available to the practitioner. However, the second and third viewpoints about theory and practice as well as the second and third viewpoints about research implicate the practitioner as researcher and as a source of theory. This more specific view of practitioner-as-researcher-and-theorist, if adopted by adult educators responsible for training and development programs, will almost certainly result in training and development programs for practitioners that are qualitatively different from programs that are located in the first viewpoint about theory, practice and research.

The practitioner-as-researcher-and-theorist concept is essentially what Schon (1983) had in mind when he developed the reflective practitioner model. It is also what Angelo and Cross (1992) are promoting as a relatively "new" role for college teachers who are interested in improving their classroom assessment skills. However, while Schon focuses on how practitioners can learn to think in practice, it is a kind of thinking that enables future action (thinking about what to do next), not thinking that is deliberately made vulnerable by deep-structure analysis of assumptions already formed and analysis of the basis on which assumptions were formed. In other words, Schon's model places far greater emphasis on "forward" thinking than on "backward" thinking. Angelo and Cross certainly share the belief that practitioners can act as researchers in their own practices, but their contribution to the higher education world has been to provide instructors with hands-on tools for assessing the effectiveness of their classroom decisions. They did not intend to address teacher thinking, per se.

The program described in the remainder of this paper contains many of the features of Schon's approach to developing reflective practitioners, and it is similar to some aspects of the Angelo and Cross teacher-as-researcher classroom assessment model. However, it has two additional features not employed elsewhere. First, the program relies in part on a phenomenological method of describing and analyzing teacher thinking, and Secondly, the program combines several different learning activities into one in order to achieve the goal of developing instructors-as-researchers-and-theorists. The program is called a reflective practice initiative, because all of the instructor participants have thus far identified themselves as reflective practitioners.

A Reflective Practice Initiative

The reflective practice initiative is underway at a community college in Knoxville, Tennessee. It is a prototype for a planned larger initiative in the area of staff development and continuous quality improvement which will eventually involve several institutions of higher education and private business organizations. The near-term goal is for instructors and trainers in these organizations to engage in continuous quality improvement activities and to develop reflective practices. A longer range goal is for the organizations to become learning organizations (Senge, 1990), through the efforts of a growing cadre of reflective practitioners within each organization.

The prototype is constituted of three learning activities that interact to produce reflective practices and a learning organization. One activity involves a group of seven community college instructors who voluntarily form a "collaborative inquiry group" (CIG), the purpose of which is to help individual members learn to improve their teaching practices. The disciplines and fields of study represented in the group include biology, physics, psychology, reading, and developmental studies. The author of this paper facilitates CIG meetings and serves as a kind of visiting researcher-practitioner at the community college. The CIG began meeting two years ago, and is continuing to do so.

In the second activity, each instructor initiates a change in his or her classroom with the intention of learning from the action and its results. In each case, the instructor intends to increase the amount and quality of learning by students enrolled in his or her course. The changes initiated by instructors are fairly commonplace in education; for example, one instructor attempted to increase student participation in class discussions, and another decided to experiment with three different evaluation techniques designed to match students' learning styles.

The third activity involves the CIG facilitator who employs a phenomenological interview and analysis technique to gather descriptions of each instructor's actions and reasoning as the instructor initiates a change in his or her practice. The technique, called the "Action-Reason-Thematic Technique" (ARTT), is designed to uncover an interviewee's beliefs, motives, rules and factual knowledge that constitute his or her reasons for taking some form of action (Peters, 1991b). The type of knowledge involved is practical knowledge (Sternberg and Wagner, 1986) and the unit of analysis is the content and structure of reasons that drive decisions (Lazzara, 1985). In this case, the interview questions (of a "what did you do" and "why did you do it" variety) are intended to produce a rich description of instructor thinking as it drives his or her selection of actions intended to increase student learning. The instructor's answers to the what and why questions are audio-taped and transcribed verbatim for later analysis.

These three activities come together during the CIG meetings. The classroom project selected by each instructor serves as the primary topic of dialogue each time the CIG meets. Interview transcripts are read by CIG participants and the ensuing dialogue is based on an analysis of the actions and reasons described in the interview transcript. A version of the ARTT is also used by participants as they ask questions and identify and describe assumptions about teaching and learning that are held by their peers. The level of analysis and dialogue soon reaches a level of common interests and motives for understanding teaching and learning that cut across all subject matter areas represented in the CIG.

The interaction of the three activities was strengthened by the use of an organizing framework for reflective practice developed by the author (Peters, 1991a). This framework is called the "DATA model," and within it reflective practice is seen as involving four steps of acting and theorizing:

1. Describe the problem, task or incident that represents some critical aspect of practice needing examination and possible change.

2. Analyze the nature of what is described, including the assumptions that support the actions taken to solve the problem, do the task, or resolve the incident.

3. Theorize about alternative ways to approach the problem, task, or incident.

4. Act on the basis of theory. (Peters, 1991a, p. 91)

These steps are usually repeated, beginning with the action step.

The above steps closely parallel the ARTT interview and analysis steps and the sequence of activities involved in individual instructor and CIG activities. Each instructor describes his or her intended changes in a course or classroom activity, both in the interview and during CIG meetings. Not only does each instructor analyze his or her own actions and supporting assumptions, but the CIG members join in this step based on their analysis of interview transcripts. Instructors are able to bring to the surface their own theories concerning their actions, and instructors act in some new way in order to learn from changes in their classroom practices.

Literature on teaching and learning also serves as a source of information on which discussion and dialogue are based. Most of the literature sources contains one or more formal theories about a specific aspect of teaching and learning. CIG members blend discussion of formal theory from these sources with their own informal theories drawn from their respective practices. Thus, the dialogues and discussions typical of CIG meetings focuses on distinctive actions taken by instructors, their theories of teaching and learning related to these actions, and on their more general theories of teaching and learning.

Results

Thus far, results of the three activities have ranged from instructors' decisions to "tweak" their projects one way or another based on recommendations by other instructors, to significant changes in assumptions on which broad approaches to teaching were based. The following are two examples of these results:

A Biology instructor decided to require her students to write abstracts of "outside" readings related to Biology. She revised the guidelines for students to use in preparing abstracts based on her own and CIG members' ideas, but she was not pleased by the students' responses to her assignment. It appeared to the Biology instructor that students were not following instructions to the letter of her requirements, but most of all, they were not demonstrating that they had learned from the experience. When her own interview responses were probed by the CIG, the instructor revealed that her criteria for student learning included evidence of "critical thinking," and that the students should see the "relevancy of the subject matter to real-life situations." Furthermore, this instructor felt that "I'm excited about biology, and students should be excited, too."

A lot of dialogue and discussion took place concerning what she meant by critical thinking and relevancy (including readings on the topic of critical thinking), and a number of probes were made into her assumption that students become excited about the study of Biology. Discussions began to turn on the instructor's own way of thinking about science in general, vis-a-vis her expectations of students and how they should think about this area of science. The instructor eventually realized that her thinking and the "relevancy" of student's thinking were in conflict. In the classroom, she thought like a scientist - orderly, formal and logically, evincing precision in thinking and in her guidelines. However, the kind of thinking she was asking the students to engage in was practical thinking, if they were to discover in Biology some relevancy to their everyday lives. Students could not think formally and read casually and think practically about Biology - especially if they were being graded on their ability to mimic scientific thought.

Over time, and during several CIG discussions about this topic and related others (e.g., how to "cover required material"), the instructor widened the scope of her expectations of students in terms of their thinking skills. She dropped the expectation that students become critical thinkers strictly in terms of science and the scientific method, but while she continued to insist that students think, her own concept of "thinking" now included practical thought as well as formal thought. Students indeed began to show more interest in the subject, not because they were planning to become biologists like the instructor, but because they could find meaning in the subject in terms of its connection to their everyday reality.

The second example is as follows:

A Biology instructor, whose dominant classroom technique was the lecture, decided to insert group discussion into her classroom activities. Her reasoning included an assumption that students who talk with one another in class would probably talk with one another outside class about the subject matter. Her basis for this assumption was that "I did that as a student, and it worked for me (talking about course content outside of class in informal groups)." However, in order to avoid a possible loss of content coverage that she grew to expect from her own lecture method, she asked students to discuss assigned topics only on a certain day of the week (Friday) and at the end of the class period. She arranged the group assignment so that designated group facilitators would each share with the total group their respective small group conclusions. However, she was disappointed to discover that very little total group discussion took place. While she witnessed considerably more discussion activity in the small groups, she had her doubts about the effectiveness of group discussions.

This instructor prepared a questionnaire for her students to complete, asking in some detail questions about their experience with group discussions. The results were not supportive of her assumptions about group discussions. While most students rated group work as appropriate and enjoyable, few said that they had learned from group activities. Discussions in the CIG about her experience resulted in a number of revelations about her own assumptions about good teaching and her own preferred style of teaching, not to mention several assumptions about students and their learning habits. In a nutshell, this instructor (relatively young and new to college teaching) chose to teach as she was taught, strongly favoring the lecture as the technique best suited to the subject and her students. Despite this, however, she was at least adventurous enough to experiment with group discussions, hoping that students would possibly learn much as she had learned, which for her involved taking copious notes, reading outside of class, and finding classmates who were willing to discuss the subject matter outside of class.

All of the students in this and other courses at the community college are commuting students, and a large percentage of the students are part-time and working adults. Few have the opportunity to gather at the student center and spend the day talking with other students about any subject. Moreover, few of the students are interested in pursuing careers in Biology or in teaching, so these were among the obstacles students and their situations presented to the instructor.

After discussing her ideas with the interviewer and CIG members,the instructor also became aware of her own assumptions about her personal style of teaching and learning, and it was in these terms that she realized that she was the main obstacle to realizing her goal of involving students in class discussions. First of all, she was so concerned about "coverage of content" that she was loath to allow sufficient time for groups to discuss assigned topics, and secondly, she realized that the group discussions were "add-ons", and not an integral part of the "lecture period." For this instructor, facts had to come first and transmittal of facts from her to students was all-important - she had the facts. She also learned best this way as a student, and she had utmost respect for a "good lecturer," a image she also aspired to convey to her students.

Another important revelation came when this instructor was asked by CIG members to work as a member of a team of CIG members and "train" other instructors at the college who are interested in forming their own CIG's. The instructor demurred, claiming that she was not prepared to help others act in a reflective way, that she needed to know much more about the details of such a program before she could be comfortable helping others learn the process. She went on to explain that, for her, while learning the subject was relatively easy, she anticipated teaching it would be very difficult. When her reasoning for this was discussed further, she realized that she had been judging her own role vis-a-vis student roles in the same way - she found teaching to be enjoyable but hard, and she assumed that, given proper instruction, students would find it relatively easy to learn Biology. Part of her reflection on this belief was based on a dialogue with the other Biology instructor, who claimed that she considered teaching as somewhat difficult at times, but for her, learning a new subject was more difficult. Suddenly, the reluctant instructor saw her group discussion leaders in the same frame. She realized that she had asked students to help other students learn aspects of Biology, and in public as well, which put them squarely in the role that she was being asked to assume as a member of an instructional team for other faculty in the college. Her perspective on student involvement was changed at that point, and she began to develop other strategies for involving students in classroom activities.

Conclusions

The following conclusions seem justified at the present stage of development of the prototype project:

1. The instructors were able to perceive their role as including research and theory building, at least as these roles relate to their own teaching activities.

2. The instructors became skilled at collaborative inquiry, and they eagerly sought the opportunity to dialogue with peers about their classroom experiences. This conclusion is consistent with the survey findings of Angelo and Cross (1992), who found that college teachers eagerly seek out peers as sounding boards and idea generators when experimenting with classroom assessment techniques.

3. The use of the ARTT and the DATA method enabled instructors to identify and describe assumptions underlying their practice, and to make changes in some of their assumptions about teaching and learning. All instructors were able to base modifications in certain aspects of their practices on their revised theories of practice.

4. Learning from their classroom experiences, instructors were their own best examples of reflection in action (Jarvis, 1987; 1992). Thus, the prototype project was a recursive activity for the instructors, all of whom were able to observe themselves in the role of teacher and learner.

5. The instructors were at least as well-trained in the positivist paradigm as most other academicians, but despite the strength of this world view, they were able to work with some comfort in the interpretive/critical paradigm. Thus, the prototype may have contributed to subtle paradigm shifts among the participants.

6. Instructors from several different disciplines and fields of study were able to dialogue with effectiveness about teaching and learning on a level that superseded the goals they held for learning in their respective disciplines.

7. It seems reasonable to conclude that the theories generated by CIG members were socially-constructed theories. Their theories were built on the grounds of personal experiences and attempts at making meaning; but personal theories were just as certainly shaped by discourse among the CIG members, aided by ideas developed in print by others in the academic community.

As mentioned, the prototype described in this paper is intended to set an example for business organizations and other institutions of higher education. It will be especially interesting to learn how trainers in business organizations react to the model, and to observe how trainers and college instructors interact in terms of teaching and learning theories and approaches to research.

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Adult Education Studies in Canada: Graduate and Undergraduate Programs

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Introduction

This review of Canadian studies of adult education is focussed primarily upon the universities which provide the majority of opportunities for learning and study in the field of adult/continuing education. This important resource base contains the human and non-human resources which enables learning about adults and their learning activities.

Adult education's early development as an area of study in Canada began through Roby Kidd's teaching at the University of British Columbia. Various programs have evolved since that time to provide Canadians with opportunities for study in all regions.

There are 15 Canadian universities which offer at least one course in adult education within their graduate or undergraduate degree programs. Ten of these institutions offer graduate level studies leading to masters' degrees, while three offer doctoral programs on a regular basis. A consortium of western Canadian universities offers a certificate program via distance education in addition to the other opportunities in the region.

There are in excess of 100 doctoral students in adult education in Canada. Many graduates with doctoral degrees will not find work in university units with programs in adult/continuing education.

Canadian academics have contributed to the literature of the field on an international as well as national basis. The work of Roby Kidd and Allen Tough will be familiar to many colleagues throughout the world. Another international contribution involves the location of the International Council for Adult Education in Toronto. This is a tribute to Roby Kidd's international activities and influence.

The pressures of reduced budgets and increased demands has impacted upon our universities and the units concerned with adult education. In spite of this situation, there have been no significant changes in staffing level nor in the number of available programs.

Canadian programs in adult education are continuously enriched by colleagues with academic training in a variety of fields. New trends and issues in the areas of feminism and critical theory challenge our existing views on theory and practice.

Although growth in size may be difficult, re-invigoration through new ideas and increased commitment is essential. The future will be filled with challenges. Survival issues will be before us for the remainder of this century.

Small beginnings in the 1950's have seen growth into a system of programs located in every region from coast to coast in Canada in the 1990's. The struggles have been significant because much of the growth has occurred during times outside the expansion years. This paper will comment on both the history and the current situation of Canada's programs and courses for the development of "generic" adult educators.

This paper's focus is on the universities and their respective units and programs which offer opportunities for study in adult and continuing education. This focus is due to the location of the majority of such opportunities throughout the university system in Canada.

Various terms are used to describe the field of adult education in Canada. Any words which describe the different activities involved in the education of adults are considered appropriate within the parameters of most programs in adult education. This would include education for such diverse areas as adult literacy and numeracy, life skills, staff training and development, continuing professional education, agricultural extension, community development, or the religious education of adults, to name but a few. Continuing education is another popular term to describe educational activities with adults. If adults are involved in an activity for the purpose of education and learning, adult educators in Canada would consider such an activity to be appropriate for their study. It should be remembered that not all universities have the resources for all areas of study.

Historical Developments

Informal activities at conferences and local meetings or through the YMCA were most often described as the way in which practitioners learned about the field of adult education up to the late 1950's. The universities accepted the responsibility for the education of adult educators at that time because they had a long standing interest in adult education through the extension divisions and they had the resources and reputation to assume the responsibility.

J.R. Kidd, who was affectionately known by his colleagues as "Roby", taught the first courses in adult education in Canada in the 1940's and 1950's after his return from Columbia University in New York where he received his doctoral degree. He taught a graduate level course in adult education at the University of British Columbia in 1956 which led to the introduction of the first Canadian master's degree program in 1957. This was soon followed by a graduate program at the master's level at the Ontario College of Agriculture of the University of Toronto, in agricultural extension in 1960; the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, which was also affiliated with the University of Toronto, in 1965; and the University of Saskatchewan in 1966 (Selman & Dampier, 1991: 238-255).

Doctoral studies began at the University of British Columbia in 1961, the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education in 1965, and the University of Montreal in 1969 (Selman & Dampier 1991: 254-255). Although other institutions offer doctoral studies on a "special case" basis, these three institutions provide the majority of places for doctoral studies and the majority of graduates with doctoral degrees to serve national and international needs.

The existence of doctoral programs for studies in both english and french languages was and is critical to the maintenance of an independent "Canadian" approach to both research and teaching. It is important to understand that the Canadian university system has relied heavily at times on either the importation of foreign academics during various periods since the 1950's or the return of Canadians who received their graduate degrees from universities in other countries. Adult education was not immune from this situation. Canadians such as Roby Kidd and Alan Thomas studied at Columbia University while Allen Tough attended the University of Chicago. Virginia Griffin, Bill Griffiths, Coolie Verner, and Robert Carlson came north from the United States.

The influence of the United States is also seen in the continued high level of activity of Canadian academics in "North American" organizations such as the Commission of Professors of Adult Education and the Adult Education Research Conference. Perhaps an appropriate counterbalance to this situation is the influence through their writings and presentations of Canadians such as Roby Kidd, Allen Tough, and Michael Collins, to name but a few.

Other universities have begun to offer courses, diplomas, and certificates as well as degrees in adult education over the past two decades. All activities have been designed to serve the requirements of adult educators in their respective parts of Canada and beyond.

The "Current" Situation

This section relies primarily upon data assembled for the 1987 study by Wickett and his colleagues (1987) and the statements by colleagues at the annual meetings of the "professors' group" during the annual conferences of the Canadian Association for Studies in Adult Education, referred to as CASAE. The latter information is somewhat anecdotal but useful in the absence of a more recent study.

CASAE requests individual institutions to conduct research into research and programme activities in adult education from time to time. Earlier studies by CASAE and other independent researchers which are of relevance to our understanding of the field were conducted by Draper and Yadao (1970), Boshier and Thiesfeld (1978), Moss (1980), Dobson (1987) and Keane (1984).

Recent years have seen pressure placed on all Canadian universities to reduce budgets while continuing to serve ever expanding community demands. Adult education programs have been influenced by both pressures. This is not a unique experience. Other countries have faced similar problems. Perhaps I can share with you some of my views on the way in which these two factors have influenced us.

Adult education units have felt the budget pressures but there has been no successful attempt to remove a unit from program delivery status. Some units, like those at the Universities of British Columbia and Saskatchewan, have been be merged with other units in larger departments. Others, including those at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education and St. Francis Xavier University, have maintained departmental status while increasing their resource base.

Resources for all adult education units are spread more thinly now in most places, including at the graduate level, while the demand for places in adult education programs, courses, and workshops continues to grow. Our universities are experiencing unprecedented growth in the numbers of mature learners, ethnic minorities, and women who return on both part-time and full-time bases to study in many fields.

Adult educators have worked with many of these "new" groups for years. Those adult educators who work in the university system can assist our institutions to cope more effectively with this changing pattern of enrolment. In some institutions, we have been given the opportunity to do so.

University programs and courses

The majority of opportunities to learn and to increase qualifications in adult and continuing education are found at the universities. Other institutions simply do not have the resources nor the types of program activities to meet the requirements of the broadest possible range of adult educators.

These programs and courses are subject to a variety of administrative arrangements within each university. Some units are located in colleges or faculties of education, while one program is offered through the extension (extra-mural) division. Some program units have departmental status, while others are actually sub-units within larger units.

The Table 1 lists the ten Canadian universities with graduate programs and the years in which the programs began in brackets after the degree (where available). Seven of the institutions listed in this table also offer diploma or certificate programs. The University of Manitoba offers a certificate program and should soon offer a master's degree program on a regular basis. although specific dates are not available, the programs at the Universities of Calgary and New Brunswick began in the 1980's. The program at the University of Alberta focused on Community Development in the 1970's but it broadened its perspective to include other areas of adult education in the 1980's.

Seven universities offer degree credit courses to their undergraduate students. These universities and the respective programs are described in Table 2. Queen's University, the University of Victoria, and the University of Western Ontario also offer graduate courses for graduate students at the master's degree level. The previous listed groups bring the total number of institutions with degree level courses across the country to a total of fifteen.

Table 1

Canadian Universities with Graduate Programs in Adult Education

University	Degree (Year) (Area)
University of Alberta	M.Ed. (Adult and Higher Education)
University of British Columbia	M.A.(1957),M.Ed.(1957),Ed.D. (1961) (Adult Education)
University of Calgary	M.A., M.Ed.(Adult Education)
Dalhousie University	M.A.,M.Ed.(Continuing Education)
University of Guelph	M.Sc.(1959) (Adult and Extension Education)
University of Montreal	M.A.(1970), M.Ed.(1969), Ph.D. (1972) (Andragogie)
University of New Brunswick	M.Ed. (Adult Education)
The Ontario Institute for	M.A.(1965) ,M.Ed.(1965) ,Ed.D .Studies in Education (1972) (Adult Education)
St. Francis Xavier University	M.Ad.Ed.(1970) (Adult Education)
University of Saskatchewan	M.C.Ed.(1970), M.Ed.(1970) (Continuing Education)

Table 2

Canadian Universities which offer Undergraduate Degree Courses or Programs Options in Adult Education

University	Program Areas
University of Guelph	Minor in Extension Education in B.Sc.(Agriculture) program
University of New Brunswick	Courses in B.A. program
Queen's University	Course in B.A. program
University of Saskatchewan	Major and Minor in Extension Education, B.Sc. (Agriculture)
University of Toronto	Courses in B.Ed. program
University of Victoria	Course in B.Ed. program
University of Western Ontario	Course in B.Ed. program

Regional overviews of graduate programs

The immense size of the country means that the regional systems for education become important. There are various ways to divide the country by physical geography or the spread of the population. We refer in this paper to the "Atlantic" region, Quebec, Ontario, the Prairies, and the West Coast.

The importance of the role of the provinces in all forms of education is noteworthy because constitutional responsibility for education resides in the provinces. Nevertheless, the Provinces of Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland do not have university graduate programs nor courses in adult or continuing education. All other provinces make some provision at the graduate or undergraduate levels for this area of study.

The Atlantic region is actually well served by the graduate programs at St. Francis Xavier University, the University of New Brunswick, and Dalhousie University. This latter institution can trace its roots in adult education to the Antigonish Movement.

The University of Montreal has been dominant in the field of adult education studies throughout Quebec for many years. It continues this dominance through the largest faculty contingent with a total of 32 full and part-time faculty (Wickett et al. 1987:24) and the only reported programs at the master's and doctoral levels in the Province.

Ontario has been well served by graduate programs at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education and the University of Guelph, which developed from the former Ontario Agricultural College of the University of Toronto. Both units have faculty resources which exceed those other english language programs, with the exception of the University of British Columbia.

The Prairie region has the long established program at the University of Saskatchewan and more recently developed programs at the Universities of Calgary and Alberta. The University of Manitoba recently hired a full-time faculty member in adult eduction and it plans to provide a graduate program on a regular basis.

The western coast has been well served for many years by the large unit at the University of British Columbia. Their programs at the doctoral and master's degree level are staffed by the largest faculty group west of Toronto.

The location of graduate programs in every region of the country increases the resources available locally for research and learning. The units with doctoral programs and St.Francis Xavier University serve their local needs as well as national and international students.

Graduate studies at St. Francis Xavier University

This program is offered in a different way, one which is clearly conducive to off-campus study and service to larger numbers of students at any time. The students engage in a process which is dominated by off-campus, local site activities which are subject to a contractual arrangement.

Campus visits by students occur regularly in order to negotiate, monitor, and evaluate contractual arrangements. Faculty members keep in contact via telephone and other electronic means.

This unit does not encourage full-time study (Wickett et al. 1987: 41). Its large student group which attends on a part-time basis is drawn from various parts of Canada. These students are drawn by the flexibility of the format.

The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education has made extensive use of distance education studies in recent years. These two programs make extensive use of local support systems such as other university libraries.

Certificate Studies

One program which serves the Prairies and west coast is operated by a consortium of university extension (extra-mural) divisions. These units are located at the Universities of Victoria, Alberta, Calgary, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba (Conrad 1993). The program consists of distance education courses and workshops which enable the learner to earn a certificate in adult and continuing education (CACE).

Many universities and other agencies offer workshops, seminars, and other professional development activities to their own staff and to other adult educators. These activities are normally intended to respond to requests which come from a local or regional constituency of adult educators.

Summary

The predominant approach to the training and development of adult educators is through the university programs which are organized for that purpose. When the university is not directly involved with a particular local training program, many persons with responsibility for the program will have university training. The influence of the universities is felt far beyond its classrooms.

Students of Adult Education

Unfortunately the data on this aspect of training and development is limited. It has not been collected by researchers or, in the case of the 1987 Study, several institutions did not provide the data. As the University of Montreal supplied no data in this category, all comments apply to institutions located outside of Quebec. The data is drawn from the 1987 Study (Wickett et al. 1987) and augmented by personal knowledge of the situation in various units on the part of the author.

Those two units which have the largest number or full-time faculty members also report the largest number of full and part-time students. The Ontario Institute reported over 350 students in total, and the University of British columbia reported over 230 students. Other units, with the exception of St. Francis Xavier University, reported less than 100 students in total. Typical numbers for small programs would be the total of 55 students at the University of Saskatchewan and 48 at the University of Alberta.

The units with doctoral programs at the Universities of Toronto and British Columbia reported a total of 104 students, including 73 part-time and 31 full-time. The current budget situation suggest that many who graduate will not find full-time appointments in adult education at Canadian universities.

Many Canadian graduate programs have students whose earlier qualifications and experience came from a wide variety of areas such as health sciences, social sciences, school-based education, agriculture, management, to name but a few. This diversity of backgrounds enriches the classroom experience and challenges faculty and student alike to see issues in new ways.

The limited number of places for students ensures what is generally regarded as a high standard for admissions. A number of programs do not accept all students who apply and meet their basic admission requirements. Quotas are often imposed on the basis of limited resources.

Canadian Academics in Adult Education

The 1987 study (Wickett, et al., 1987) indicated that their were 109 active faculty members with either full-time or part-time appointments. There have been no reports of major changes in the numbers of faculty members since this report, although there have been some changes through the addition of positions at places such as the University of New Brunswick and the University of Alberta.

Of the 65 full-time faculty members, the majority (38) were located at the three programs with doctoral studies at the Universities of British Columbia, Montreal, and Toronto (the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education). These universities continue to have the largest number of faculty in the field of study.

One surprising fact about the qualifications of faculty members in university units devoted to teaching and research in adult education is the absence of earned doctorates. Many faculty members have earned doctorates in other academic fields such as the social sciences and humanities or other areas of education (Wickett et al. 1987: 8-40,49).

Dobson (1987:3) observes that many who teach in adult or continuing education programs did not report publications as "adult education" in nature. These faculty members often reported their publications within the context of other disciplines. The other disciplines were often interdisciplinary in nature. An often cited example would be women's studies. In other cases, they may involve the faculty member's original academic discipline.

One other surprising finding by Dobson (1987:3) involves the frequency of publication by authors. Approximately 80% of the publications in adult education came from authors who produced only one item. It is difficult to determine why this should be so. Perhaps the demands of the workplace of the adult education practitioner are a contributing factor.

Dobson (1987:3) does indicate that thirty authors in the field produced over 20 items each in international and national publications. These authors all came from the universities with seven from the Ontario Institute, five from the University of British Columbia, and four from the University of Saskatchewan.

Another study by Garrison and Baskett indicated the need for more scholarly activities in the field of adult education. The field appears to rely on too few individuals to carry it to "a heightened level of scholarly pursuit". There is some anecdotal evidence as well as other indications within the universities that more emphasis is now being placed on scholarly writing in the 1990's.

International contributions of Canadian faculty members

There is a tendency for Canadians, and certain others, to avoid comment upon the positive contributions which their work has made beyond their own borders. Nevertheless, we need to recognize the efforts of J.R.(Roby) Kidd in the international context and in the third world (India, Africa, and the Caribbean) in particular. Allen Tough, Michael Collins, Alan Thomas, Budd Hall and others have been recognized for their contributions in various ways beyond the borders of Canada.

These colleagues have inspired us with their writings as well as their contributions to international gatherings of various types. Their reports and articles have been read by many and influenced both policy and practice on a wide scale.

An example of the fine contribution of two Canadian authors is the recognition of their work by the Commission of Professors of Adult Education, a North American group. The Commission conducted a study of the most influential books in the literature of adult education. Teaching faculty who rated the importance of adult education books gave high praise to Roby Kidd's How Adults Learn and Allen Tough's The Adult's Learning Projects. These volumes were placed within the top five on the final listing.

Perhaps the most important international achievement is the location of the International Council for Adult Education with its office in Toronto. Roby Kidd's work toward the establishment of the organization and its headquarters has made Canadian adult educators justly proud.

Current trends and issues

Recent years have seen the emergence of two major issues within the context of Canadian graduate programs and in other disciplines within the university community. The first issue involves women's studies, and the second issue is the area of critical theory. Both issues have important implications for theory and practice in adult education.

The ever increasing importance of women's studies within Canadian universities can be observed in the development of new units and sub-units and the hiring of new faculty with responsibilities in this area. Adult education units have been influenced by this trend, and a new focus has emerged around women, the largest group of participants in our graduate programs and in most areas of adult education activity. The Ontario Institute has been leading the way in the Department of Adult Education and in the Ontario Institute's Women's Studies Centre.

Critical theory has been introduced into the curriculum of virtually all major programs in adult education in Canada., The University of Saskatchewan and Dalhousie University are providing leadership in this area of study.

These two issues are having an impact across the country in various ways. Both the human resources and the library and other material resources are being acquired to enable study. Some institutions integrate these resources into existing offerings while others are developing new courses and program initiatives.

Concluding Thoughts

Adult education studies are alive and well in Canada, although there has been some turmoil in recent years. There may be budget problems in some universities, but no major reduction of the numbers of faculty and programs has occurred. Survival may not be far from our minds for the remainder of the 1990's, but there is confidence that programs and faculty positions will increase in the long term.

The field is immeasurably enriched by the cross- fertilization of different disciplines within our various units. The need to survive should not impact on this valuable experience for both students and faculty.

The importance of adult learning continues to be recognized more widely in society and its institutions. Our programs must respond effectively to this growing notion of the importance of adult learning. Adult educators who have a deeper understanding of their role in society will continue to emerge from our academic programs. These adult educators will provide the support for learning which adults will continue to require.

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Self Reliance and Distance Education - The Case of teachers in Tanzania

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Introduction

The concept of self-reliance has in the past received much attention and has been linked with development strategies at a national level. However, as a form of social behaviour it has probably been around for a much longer time. Self reliance at a local level is something done by people in participation with others in similar situations. Self-development of teachers through in-service training is a key issue in improving the quality of education in Tanzanian primary schools. For, some 70.000 primary school teachers, many of them living in educationally isolated areas scattered throughout the country, opportunity for academic upgrading means learning at a distance. The first part of this paper focuses on how the concept of self-reliance can be utilised in distance learning. Over the last few years there have been a number of reported problems with this programme and a recent study highlighted the need for greater learner support. The second part of this paper considers the case of Tanzanian teachers as distance learners and proposes a model which utilises self-reliance and learning. The model emerges out of teachers solutions and goes on to suggest that the concept of self-reliance easily rests with the distance learners strategies for support.

Certain images of countries and their ideologies lodge permanently in the mind. The picture of Nyerere's ambitious attempts at restructuring the Tanzanian society in a communal, socialist direction in the 1960's and 70's is one of them. The descriptions of educational poverty in Tanzanian primary schools as described by TADREG [1993] is another. My recent experience of meeting primary school teachers studying through distance learning methods in Tanzania and working with their correspondence learning material is engraved in the memory in a similar way.

Self-development of teachers through in-service training is a key issue in improving the quality of education in Tanzanian primary schools. Recent reports on schooling and teacher training in Tanzania have emphasised the need for reinforcing the qualities of primary schooling and teacher training in the face of a decline in the provision of primary schooling [e.g. Dock et.al., 1989; Jarvis, 1991 and World Bank, 1991].

Since 1984, the Ministry of Education and Culture [MEC] have been offering unqualified primary school teachers opportunities for academic up-grading through correspondence methods. A recent study was commissioned to evaluate this programme[1] and highlighted deficiencies in the provision of learner support for the teachers. No effort will be made to provide a full description of the system, which is contained in the main study, but instead, the purpose of this paper is to highlight one of the determinants of the proposed system: self-reliance, and the extent to which past practices and experiences can determine a policy framework for the development and maintenance of student support. In fact this dimension is of vital importance for most correspondence programmes, and especially those like Tanzania where many learners, their schools and even communities are beyond the resources of the central institute.

Before proceeding to a description of a proposed model which will illustrate the lessons learned from the study this paper addresses the issue of "self-reliance" and distance learning and the importance of the role of the learner in a Tanzanian context. Attention is focused on a discussion which tries to explore how the concept can be incorporated and also help to develop distance education to the benefit of both the learners and the organisation. However, to some extent the recent experience of the Tanzanian correspondence course preceded my thinking about self-reliance and therefore in many ways was influential in the following discussion.

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Habari za siku nyingi? [what is the news of many days past?]

Nyerere's efforts to create a specific African form of socialism involved adapting education with the aim of providing 'relevant' education for local conditions. A major initiative was the introduction of "Education for Self-Reliance" [ESR] and educational changes were aimed at "encouraging the development in each citizen an enquiring mind; an ability to learn from what others do, and reject or adapt it to his own needs (and others)".Nyerere [1967: 17]. There is ample evidence [see for example, Mbilinyi and Mbughuni (eds), 1991] that these ideological constructs have never really been fulfilled both at national and local levels, mostly because of conflicts caused by a central leadership which thought that it could "guide" and stimulate development in education. Teachers, regional and local school administrators did not participate in decision making about schooling for ESR. Local initiatives and innovation in the schools were thwarted by centre policy making. Thus, in a climate of lack of resources to support the policy over-centralisation left very little room for individuals to achieve ESR aims,

Habari za siku jana? [what is the news from yesterday?]

Time has caught up with Tanzania's ideologically determined education system and current policy reforms aim at improving the quality and economics of primary education, with a gradual move away from centralised monopolies and intentional moves towards more active involvement, collaboration and more participatory forms of control. For many the "utopia" of self-reliance, although becoming the dominant policy, failed to live up to expectations. Today, Tanzania is rapidly becoming dependent on foreign investment for development purposes.

The recent World Conference on Education for All emphasised basic education as a major development priority but also provided enough evidence to proclaim a global crisis in education for nearly all developing countries. Education is in competition with other sectors for scarce resources and faced with pressures to increase education provision, many have utilised distance education as a low cost alternative, as is the case with Tanzania. Within this framework however, the original principles upon which the ESR was built remain interesting, especially at the individual participatory level and raises for distance educators the serious question of whether ideas such as "self-reliance" can be used and re-interpreted from what has been learnt from traditional and distance education experiences in Tanzania.

The Concept of self-reliance and the learner.

Self-reliance, as a concept received much attention during the last 30 years when it became synonymous with development for many developing countries. It was seen by these countries as making it possible to be less dependent on western governments and International organisations. The basic idea of self-reliance in this instance is to break away from the vertical nature of relationships with the ability to be self-sufficient, offering opportunities to negotiate new patterns of relationships within a common endeavour.

For Nyerere, self-reliance meant independence and a belief in a basic strategy for developing national self-reliance and emphasising the dangers of relying on foreign investment for development. At a party conference in 1982, Nyerere was forced to acknowledge the failure of self-reliance and his analysis of the situation was rather to the point:

> "Perhaps most fundamental of all our failures to abide by our own decisions has been the failure, at all levels, to understand and practice the principles of self-reliance. First we have thought of self-reliance as an end, a goal, of our efforts which we shall one day reach. We have not recognised that it is also a means to reaching that end." [Nyerere, 1982: p19].

The failure to elicit true participation and an adherence to the basic creed of *kila mtu afanye kazi* (everybody must work) at all levels was a major setback. Furthermore, as Nyerere points out above, means became ends in themselves. The reference to participation at "all levels" gives recognition that self-reliance strategies were aimed at national, local and individual levels. However, it is not an activity done **for each** level by some group it is something **done by the people in participation with others in the similar situations**. It is at the individual level that deserves more attention. If individual participation and efforts are not encouraged and promoted then self-reliance becomes difficult to promote at other levels.

We have already seen that in the ESR programme individual development was to be through an ability "to learn through what others do". **Self-reliance** would appear to incorporate the individual taking initiatives and decisions but excludes dependence on outside influences. This dual nature of self-reliance in learning is described by Preiserk [1980] as being how to combine **independence with interdependence**, where independence is synomonous with **autonomy** and interdependency is linked with **equity**. The point about equity here is that interaction in many instances has to be re-directed towards a more equitable relationship which Galtung [1980] points out has implications for searching for means of co-operating which do not engender new patterns of dependence. Autonomy in Preiserk's sense is used as a combination of self-confidence and self-sufficiency but this seems to identify to strongly with the 'self' and independence. To me autonomy goes beyond independent learning and includes the free decision on behalf of people to become dependent when this become appropriate. Afterall, autonomy has always to be practiced within imposed learning constraints and therefore represents more of a gradual process than a fixed product. I prefer to rely on the work of Elton in which he describes **autonomy learning as interdependent** in that "autonomy learners, on their own initiative, learn both from themselves and from others; they establish a relationship of mutuality between themselves and their learning environment" [Elton 1988:p 220]. Mutuality being mutual respect for each other in a common endeavour.

A policy of self-reliance does not mean one of independence or autarky. It implies mutual benifits from working and interacting with people in similar situations in a self-confident manner [an equitable partnership]. A belief in the capacity of learners to progressively take responsibility for their actions and establish a mutual realtionship between themselves and their learning environment. To arrive at this condition changes in the structure of the education systems may be necessary and the extent to which self-reliance is compatible with present patterns of education will have to be explored. How can ideas like these be incorporated in distance education and especially how can we meet the challenge of improving distance education in the poorer countries where it seems to be of fundamental value?

Self-reliance and distance education in practice

The above discussion indicates the importance of striving for mutuality in relationships between institutions and learners and between learners themselves in moving from dependency towards self reliance. The point then is to reform the central monopoly of institutional control by initiating and creating new patterns of co-operation and even perhaps creating new institutional forms, where active participation aspects of self-reliance are clearly different from the more inward-looking self-sufficiency as a concept. In practice this would mean placing a high priority on horizontal co-operation within organisations of teachers at school, district and regional levels through negotiation.

Self-reliance ultimately means that self-reliance is engendered and developed in participation with others. It is this recognition of participation which leads to the idea of interdependency. It is often the very lack of contact with teachers and fellow students in distance education though which prevents learners from gaining in interdependence which is also a part of autonomy. Also the very quality of most distance learning material being well-structured and highly directed also tends to encourage students to become more dependent [Morgan Taylor & Gibbs: 1982]. This aspect would also seem to limit what can be negotiated. The answer comes in part by modifying the material to become more interactive, providing a wider range and flexibility of reading material and ways of encouraging learners to collaborate with colleagues, even if they are not taking the course. These features have already successfully been incorporated in a distance education programme which encourages learners to a move towards autonomy [Elton, Oliver & Wray, 1986; Elton & Wort, 1989].

However, self-reliance at what ever level of sophistication, requires a nominal base of self-sufficiency in terms of learning resources. A major concern for most distance learners in developing countries is to find sufficient resources needed for learning. Although this situation can often create a vertical relationship and dependency on the institution to provide resources [which they often do not have or are dependent on a western donor for contributions] it can also, as we shall see later, cause a move towards independence and interdependence. Although any distance learning course has an element of independent study there is no reason why in some instances, where there are insufficient resources it should become the not so uncommon situation of 'learning in isolation'.

Another concern for the learner is finding support and tutoring [in a self-reliant way?] by correspondence or other medium. Providing this human resource presents great difficulties in developing countries and much of the activities offered [including face-to-face tuition] are done with minimum economic resources and often suffer from poorly trained tutors. It is here that new models of equitable relationships can be established with countries with successful experiences of tutoring in negotiating training activities for supporting the learner.

Self-Reliance learning at a distance - attempts at a solution

How self-reliance learning at a distance might be put into practice will be illustrated by reference to the Tanzanian context. In a recent study of a national correspondence education in Tanzania it was discovered that many learners were forming their own local interactive groups, meeting in schools and homes and inviting local academic input where and when they thaught it appropriate. Small communities of teachers as learners were being created which was rather indicative of the failure of the institution in providing the sort of help needed but, also in part, a deliberate intention on the part of many teachers to become self-reliant.

- **The In-Service Upgrading Correspondence Programme.**

The Ministry of Education and Culture, for almost a decade now, has been using correspondence education in the provision of in-service teacher training. The aim of the programme is to raise the academic competencies of Grade C primary school teachers through **studying the secondary school curriculum to that of ordinary certificate level ['O' level]**. Each year, 2,000 Grade C teachers are registered into the programme and study six subjects. Currently, the subjects which are offered are Mathematics, English language, Geography, History, Kiswahili language and Siasa [political education]. Those on the correspondence programme may take from one and a half to three years to complete before qualifying for residential training. The teachers get their correspondence material through the post directly form the Correspondence Institute. Tutoring is centralised and done entirely through correrspondence.

The educational background of the teachers and their ability to perform well in the classroom is obviously a key issue in improving the quality of primary education and in Tanzania the teachers are classified into different grades according to their basic academic education and length of teacher training. The Grade C's who form nearly 70% of the total teaching force have gained their qualifications in different ways. At the most a small number have Standard VII primary education and two years residential. However, many of the Grade C's were "crashed-trained" at the end of the 70's and have completed less education than there generally younger colleagues and perhaps have had only three months residential teacher training. A higher proportion of this group are posted to the rural areas.

- **Distribution of Village Primary Schools**

At the village level the most important unit is the primary school, and of all the social services in Tanzania it is the primary school which is most widely distributed as a consequence of egalitarian policies of the Arusha declaration [Nyerere, 1967].

Tanzania has an area of 945,000 sq. km and there are currently 10,451 primary schools in the country [TADREG, 1993] with around 3.5 million pupils and 98,174 teachers of all grades [1991 figures based on MEC:BEST, 1991]. There appears to be a wide distribution of around 8,000 [estimate] villages which is likely to give us a figure of about one school in each village. However this says nothing about the distances between the schools or their ease of access. This factor becomes important when we come to consider the working strategies for the expansion and development of the current correspondence course.

- **The Learners Experiences and Strategies for Support.**

The correspondence programme appears to operate as essentially an input-output model and functions primarily through the provision of learning material to teachers. Contact with a tutor [based in Dar es Salaam] is confined to the interchange of marked assignments appearing in the learners workbook and is less concerned with other support activities, which many teachers want. Part of the problem is the dichotomy that exists between the perception [or lack of] that tutors hold about their role and the expectations that many of the teachers have concerning the type of help to be given. However, the enthusiasm shown by the teachers and other interested parties for strengthening the support for the learner indicates that **they consider the provision of support as an important and integral part of their correspondence studies.** In general there two main issues of concern of the teacher in studying

1. ***how to manage their time for studying and***
2. ***how to get help with difficult topics in the reading material.***

In the first of these the common strategy was for the teacher to stay behind after school hours for an hour or so and do their studies. This seemed to be a popular approach for both men and women but it was more common in instances of women teachers as a way of having study time away from [albeit temporary] the demands made on them when they arrived home and having to find time late at night for studying.

In general, the learners relied heavily upon the correspondence material, but there were teachers who sought help from others by forming "learner groups" when they had particular difficulty. Help came from various sources. A popular choice was the "subject expert" drawn from a local secondary school whereby the arrangement became one of "contracted tutor" and each group member paying a fee or organising a meal for their visitor. This, was very common amongst the women groups, particularly as a strategy of minimising the marginalisation they felt of studying confined to the home. The social interaction of the group was an important factor in their learning as was the help gained from each other.

There were occasions though where some correspondence teachers did not want to work in groups, even though they had colleagues in their school also on the course. They were happy to meet on an informal basis and share information about the course but not work together. It is very important to recognise that not all learners want or need to work in learning groups and therefore they should be given the opportunity to study in ways that suit their own style of learning, with opportunities to have tutor help when and if they require it. This is part of the recognition of the independence of some teachers in their learning and creating situations where they choose their pattern of learning best suited to themselves.

The outcomes of the study clearly suggests that there is a need for tutor or academic support with learning through correspondence material. This sort of support required is seen as providing help with interpreting and understanding the learning material, which must also include interactions associated with assignment work. ***The essential characteristic is that strategies for support are grounded in local experiences.***

Towards a Model of In-Service Correspondence Education

The model emerged out of a realisation that teachers were benefiting by their own understanding of the sort of help needed in their learning through correspondence methods. Importantly, they were also making decisions as to when and where to learn based upon their own preferences and that of colleagues who were in somewhat similar study situations. It was in response to teachers stories that a model emerged which capitalised on **teachers self-reliant solutions** - individual local support for the learner and with possibilities of establishing self-selected learning groups and a progression towards teacher learning networks. Selective in the sense that it was the teachers themselves who were in control of their learning. Perhaps the most important aspect for the purpose of improving and strengthening the in-service correspondence education was - ***learner involvement and self-reliant activities through group participation.***

In considering proposals for a model of correspondence education we need to briefly look at a number of constraining conditions for "self-reliance" and importantly, how the this knowledge can be incorporated within the experiences of the teachers themselves in producing coping strategies in studying at a distance. A concern was the idea that ***distance*** [in distance education] takes on a greater and more complex meaning when we consider some of the more remote parts of rural Tanzania where the teachers are geographically isolated but also where the sort of support they may expect depends on the relations between special "frame factors" [see Dahllof 1990]. These frames, it is suggested, include the types of terrain, the nature of local transport and communications [postal], economic and the cultural conditions which form rural situations and in some cases the locality of secondary schools in Tanzania.

However, in terms of constraining "frame factors" such as lack of access to learning resources, it was vital to see whether the schools have the sort of facilities needed by teachers in forming learning groups. In most cases, the minimum requirement was the use of a reasonable classroom for teachers to meet. This was easily met and without exception, and in addition all teachers were able to suggest a suitable location for their learning groups.

- **The Learning Groups and Clusters**

Developing and operating the model is essentially seen as an exercise in maintaining and providing teacher support services both within the school network and from outside the schools. **In a sense the idea of student support should become synonymous with the entire operation of the correspondence programme.** The major characteristics of the teachers own strategies for obtaining help and a number of implications which seem appropriate control conditions as follows;

Teachers take initiative and make their own decisions whether or not to form learning groups based on -

- ***their preferred learning style***
- ***the accessibility of local support***
- ***having colleagues in the same school***
- ***identifying and having confidence in a local expert.***

The proposals extend this experience by suggesting that different school learning groups have a choice to meet with other school learning groups in a ***cluster network*** as a further support mechanism. It is also recognised and acknowledged that the decision to form groups must be left to the teachers themselves and not built into a rigid model. In most instances the school clusters to be formed are within the existing district boundary. However, it may be more appropriate in some instances given inter-school distances and access difficulties to have some schools involved from adjacent wards.

- **Tutorial support**

Tutorial support in self-reliant model becomes an important condition in its success. It is proposed that groups of teacher from local teacher training colleges be contracted to take on the complimentary roles of course writers and tutors. This is deliberate in that these tutors are familiar with the educational background of the grade C teachers as well as the context of their working conditions. This is, in itself is seen as an advantage because as Perraton [1984] pointed out:

"...the best correspondence tutors are those people with a mastery of their own subject who can correspond warmly and sympathetically with students.."

However one disadvantage is that it places a large burden of responsibility and a heavy workload on the part of the teacher trainers who perhaps already have heavy teaching loads. The kind of tutoring which is expected to be effective requires special skills. The provision of training activities for tutoring staff is therefore important for developing effective tutoring and might be provided through negotiations with a country with experience of training programmes and the establishment of new horizontal patterns of relationships.

- **Students as a support resource**

The potential resource of student support through self-organised groups has already been highlighted. They are seen as a very useful complimentary adjunct to tutor-organised activities. It is hoped that grade 'C' teachers in the primary schools can participate in joint activities following their enrolment in the correspondence course. It is seen as important to encourage and emphasise the collective nature of the in-service training whereby each school can establish a learning group of teachers coming together when ever they feel it necessary in sharing and discussing learning experiences whilst studying at a distance.

An obvious exception to this model is

[1] when the primary school is too small to sustain a group approach and
[2] when a teacher chooses to work on their own

In these instances the material and support of tutors must be focused upon the individual teacher and their needs. The possibility exits that in some rural schools that there is only one teacher who could apply for the course which obviously creates some difficulty in taking part in group activities for the isolated teacher. Here the learning material must provide a sufficient balance between group activity and individual work so that the single teacher can use the material on their own. The tutor support and help should be available for these teachers.

It is also interesting to note variations in the size of the learning groups which can either be determined by a self-selection process or by the number of teachers in the school committed to forming groups. An optimum combination might be 3/4/5 teachers who regularly meet and share experiences of working with the learning material and actively participate in group activity when appropriate.

Some of the chief functions of the learning groups are;

> to create an interactive teacher learning environment within the school
> to strengthen the identity and confidence of grade 'C' teachers
> to facilitate learning through sharing experiences
> to reduce isolation of the correspondence teacher
> to create situations which have a bearing on the teaching
> to have a transfer of learning through the school children
> to emphasis the learning needs of the children
> to foster new confidence in parents in the knowledge that practical and effective steps are being to improve their teachers
> to create co-operation between schools and teachers through clusters
> to instil a sense of personal development through self-improvement in correspondence education.

The clusters allow each school learning group to make their own arrangements particular to their own specific circumstances of school and community. The degree of self-organisation of teachers can also permit a strong local participation. The hope is that it will foster and result in a series of cohesive and interactive learning groups and learning through participation with others in similar situations reflecting the aims of self-reliance. Importantly, the challenge is also for the institutions that teach at a distance in striving to provide opportunities and support mechanisms which complement a policy of self-reliance in distance education for Tanzania.

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Towards a comparative study of policy and practice in Western Learning Societies

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Introduction

Western industrial societies are undergoing fundamental change. The idea of learning as a way of handling change is widely accepted. This paper discusses some of the different assumptions underpining the building of a Learning Society in which everyone participates in education and training throughout their life. Here learning is used to describe a change in consciousness, be it, a flash of insight, double loop learning, a deepening awareness that transforms reality; or it can refer to acquiring of attitudes, knowledge, skills (Brookfield 1986: 46).

There are many approaches to building a Learning Society, or implementing a system of life long learning. Learning is a complex process which involves the mind, the emotions, feelings, memory; and which deeply touches our values and practices. Learning is a human activity that can be focused, intentional, and organized. Learning is a social construction: something within the power of people to control and develop. And perhaps above all, "learning lies at the heart of innovation, and innovation is the key to success" (Hague 1993). But learning involves choice, and therefore moral and political judgement: inevitably learning also generates political conflict and intellectual disagreements (Small 1992). Moreover, there is no corpus of learning that any one person or group can master.

Here it is suggested that a Learning Society is sustained by a socially constructed infrastructure of (at least) five functional systems of adult learning. These functions summarize the essential processes in a Learning Society: learning to govern; learning to create meaning and to make sense of the world; learning to create and to disseminate knowledge; institutional (or organizational) learning; and craft and professional learning. These activities are necessarily dynamic, complex, diverse, and not least, very controversial. Some assumptions underpining these functional systems are briefly discussed below.

Any enlargement of the learning capabilities in society, be they those of individuals adults, groups, institutions, or government, involves learning about learning (Schon 1973 and 1983). It also demands at least, first, an understanding of the infrastructure (or ecology) of learning; second, an appreciation of the interconnectedness and permeability of learning; and third, a deliberate nurturing of learning, training and development.

The culture of policy and practice

Arguably, cultures and institutions can be understood as a set of solutions which a group of people develop to meet specific problems posed by the situation in which they find themselves. The assumption is that people discover, create and use culture and institutions. Social change or innovation becomes not merely a matter of individual performance and accomplishment, but a question of changing group (or societal) values, meanings, policies and practices. Any account of culture is therefore also about people learning: learning to do things, learning to create meanings, and knowing. This active notion of culture and institutions emphasises the living and historical products of problem solving.

Policy and practice are deeply rooted in moral and intellectual traditions. In our "expert" society, they may be separate activities, but analytically they are interwined and interdependent. Policy may be an academic activity advancing understanding as well as an applied activity concerned with the solving of social problems. The content of policy is rarely determined by disciplinary boundaries rather it is influenced by "whatever appears appropriate to circumstances of the time and the nature of the problem" (Wildavsky 1979: 15). Practice may involve artistic activity, knowing how to make things, and practical "wisdom" knowing how to secure the ends of human life.

The relationship between culture and learning, institutions and practice is complex and much discussed in the literature. For example, Vygotsky (and others including Bruner) have linked culture not only to psychological development such as social interaction and internalization, but also specifically with higher mental processes. Vygotsky argued that the higher mental functions (such as voluntary attention, memory, and rational, volitional goal-directed thought) were inherently social. First, the development of these mental functions was part of the development of the socio-cultural system, and their existence depends on transmission through learning. Second, these functions are nothing other than the organization and means of actual social behaviour that has been taken over by the individual and internalized (Rieber and Carton 1987: 21). While MacIntyre (1981) has distinguished between what goes on in an institution (here defined as a place and its social organization) and practice (an organized and disciplined activivity). For example, chess, music, physics, teaching and medicine are practices; chess clubs, concert centres, laboratories, colleges and hospitals are institutions. MacIntyre recognizes that they are responsible for one another without exploring who came first.

Common problems and tasks

But there are also inherent moral and political difficulties in policy making and practice, not least the complication that what education is for remains a contested issue. Moreover, in Britain, as Anthony Sampson (1992: 73) has remarked,

> [we or most of us?] seem unable to connect education to the needs of the country, or any vision of the future. [Our] politicians and educationalists are still distracted ... by the charms of the two medieval English universities, which like the independent schools, cast a shadow over the rest.

There are therefore unresolved steering problems, and the inevitable uncertainty and turmoil (Habermas 1976). The crisis is exacerbated because the (seemingly) incompatible claims and intentions of techmological and social imperatives. A task of training and development professionals is to recognize the technical rules and the social interactions which form and sustain the process of technological and - interdependently - institutional and cultural development. (Jessop, et al. 1991). Presumably it all demands a life long commitment in which everyone participates in education and training throughout their life. It also requires that individuals help each other to think critically about the future, while keeping in mind that "performance" is not only about what can be done today, but rather about the development of learning potential for tomorrow (Nyham, 1991).

Common aspirations and pre-occupations

A common challenge driving training and development practictioners and policy makers is to raise standards, overcome weaknesses in initial education, and increase the acquisition and uses of knowledge and skills. First, there is a debate whether standards are high enough. Again at least in the UK there is a recognition of the weaknesses in the qualifications of managers, the lower number of engineers, and the lower staying-on rates in education in the UK compared to those in Germany, France, the USA and Japan (PSI report 1991, Ryan 1991).

Second, in the 1980s the principles of lifelong and recurrent education, initially widely discussed in the 1960s, were more widely accepted. For example, in Britain, a report of the influential Royal Society for the encouragement of Arts, Manufactures & Commerce [RSA], Learning Pays (Ball 1991), embodied the idea of lifelong learning. The author, Sir Christoper Ball, argued that a learning society was an essential prerequisite for high investment, productivity and profits. The formal school system was seen as a foundation rather than as the main motor behind economic growth; but he questioned whether (in Britain) our system of initial education (be it at the foundation or formative stages) adequately prepares all our young people to move forward into the continuation stage. This third continuation phase, Ball argued, is for adults who have completed the foundation and formation stages, and who [it is expected] will be self-motivating, independent and confident employees. Thus, without adequate universal initial education and training the task of continuing training is doubly difficult.

Third, there are problems associated with increasing the flexibility of labour force, that is, learning to acquire new skills and competences, to use new knowledge and adapt old knowledge in new combinations (Finegold 1991, Jessop et al. 1991). But learning to adapt and learning to produce innovation and development demands a high involvement with the formal education and training systems.

The Thatcherite exprience

In Britain, as the right-wing Conservative Michael Howard (1991), then an Employment Minister, has written

> the development of a learning culture to support lifelong learning is a natural priority, there is no such thing as sufficient initial education, learning is endless. The [British] Government is fully committed to the creation of a learning society in which everyone will be encouraged, motivated and helped to find opportunities to improve their skills and knowledge.

But the Thatcherite assumption (one of several possible assumptions) is that a learning society should dissiminate neo-liberal principles and activate a market-centred economy: where a business-orientated, flexible work force with applicable skills and adaptable wage demands would flourish. Thus the learning society is not seen as an end in itself: for example, helping develop individual talents and interests, or helping explore and further social purposes. Rather the value of the learning society is to sustain growth and to create wealth. Its (short term) contribution was to help re-form the supply side of the economy: articulate the benefits of an unregulated free market opportunities, competition and enterprise, the limited use of taxpayers' moneys, minimium costs and maximium business profits; and train and develop the work force. Its effectiveness as an education and training enterprise is the extent to which employers and entrepeneurs see improving competitiveness and productivity, lower costs and increase outcomes (that is, training more people with desired skills and attitudes, and relevant knowledge). In the longer term, a Thatcherite "permanent revolution" would shift the political paradigm, a grand word, for a cluster of basic assumptions that form a world view, a way of filtering knowledge and experience. The inevitability of universal free markets would be recognised, and Britain's independence would be perserved (Lewin 1992: 335). It would also strengthen the "vigorous virtues,... or attributes which qualify all acts of a person, and which can be displayed in an infinite variety of particular, substantive lives"; here the preferance is for individuals who are "up-right, self-sufficient, energetic, adventurous, independent-minded, loyal to friends, robust against enemies" (Ibid: 33).

But the choice of a political paradigm or the opening of free markets is not the expression of a "natural process". Political paradigms and free markets are human social constructions. Only the most determined governments have maintained free markets, and at untold cost in human misery. There is nothing "natural" about exposing labour, products, money, and property to the market place. The activities of governments defended in the name of the "laws of nature" or economic laws that purport to work are socially constructed assumptions and human theories of exchange (Winter 1966).

The experience of Thatcherism demonstrates yet again the paramount importance of values and commitment; and the need to mobilize effectively individuals, instiutions and systems in any effort to change learning and culture. The Government recognized
the need to dissiminate not only its convictions and approach to learning, but also to change those of the major institutions, public perceptions (the meaning sytem), the education and training enterprise (the knowledge system), and the craft and professional practices. Like it or not, Margaret Thatcher led an innovative government between 1979 and 1991. Thatcher was determined to impose her values and reform Great Britain. She and her ministers defiantly used their powers to re-make the nation's labour force and the education and training system.

But policy and practice are essentially contested areas and so Thatcherite policies and practices also evoked strong criticisms and produced alternative solutions. As they sought to change assumptions, the political paradigm and institutions, the politicians rightly perceived that a major battle for the soul of society had to be fought (Scruton 1980).

The battles to change peoples' aspirations, perceptions, and values were fought in the political arenas (in parliament, political parties, trade unions, and so on), in institutions (companies, schools, universities, and so on), in the intellectual arena (the media, the press, and among the "chattering classes"), and in craft and professional circles (academic meetings, professional associations, etc). The struggle was to impose the preferred way of life and the desired approach to learning. Training and development is fashioned of the tensions between government, the freedom of institutions to create solutions, discover and use knowledge, freedom to develop craft and professional practices, and organization. The issues and some of the assumptions, or world views, that underpin the learning of governments, institutions, and professional practice are briefly discussed below.

Learning in government

It is not surprising that governments take a profound interest in learning: not only learning to bury their failures or veering away from them; but also more importantly, directing and (sometimes) facilitating society's learning. Governments legislate, finance, and administer education and training. They can influence, constrain, facilitate or deny individual freedoms, knowledge, participation in social practice and institutions. They can affect how individuals operate as craft people and as professionals, and in institutions (Schon 1973 and 1983).

The government, as paymaster and rule maker, is a central player in determining learning in society. The set of working principles, or choosen political paradigm, within which government operate help determine the nature of the adult learning enterprise, the training and development. A political paradigm articulates "a relationship between social purposes, government and learning, as a scientific paradigm articulates the relationship between question, method and finding" (Marris 1982: 109).

But there is no one "best" political paradigm: different political paradigms support distinct assumptions about learning and learning strategies. For example, governments may operate within liberal, corporatist, and social ecology paradigms (Marris 1982); or other variously labelled political paradigms, viz., guardian, egalitarian, business centred, or market centred. The liberal view is that social ideals are paramount, and that government should regulate economic activity in accord with them. Here learning is about articulating social ideals and exploring ways of meeting individual and group needs. The criticism of the liberals is that too often their social goals, community arrangements, and learning are incompatible with economic realities.

The corporate paradigm assumes the opposite: here the requirements of the economy, and the demands of the entrepeneurs and business people is paramount. Any social aspirations must remain subordinate, the prime responsibilty of governments is to create the climate and the conditions in which the economy would flourish. Here learning becomes primarily about improving competitive advantage and increasing the business poweress of individuals and wealth creating companies.

The ecological approach aims to restore a balance between the political rights of individuals and communities. Thus, both individual and community needs are confirmed; and an attempt is made to widely disperse power and embody control in ways in which people handle everyday transactions. Here learning becomes a cooperative effort where citizen participation and decentralized decision making is pervasive and mutually accommodating.

The Thatcher government was unequivocally committed to neo-liberal market solutions for economic problems. But it denied that government was equipted to solve social problems. However, the "free" markets would enable divers individual needs to be met and reconciled. Hence the effort to activate individual responsibility in education and training. Hence the insistence that only in a "free" market can the providers of education and training (or health and welfare) satisfy individual demands and needs.

Institutions and learning

Institutions think, and as Mary Douglas has argued, they

> survive by harnessing all information processes to the task of establishing themselves. The instituted community blocks personal curiosity, organizes public memory, and heroically imposes certainty on uncertainty... [It] affirms itself, the community's self knowlege and knowledge of the world must undergo change when the organization of work changes. (Douglas 1987: 102).

The learning capacity of an institution is critical to its innovation and flexibility (Jessop el al. 1991). Any economic or social change requires change in habits of thought and aspirations, and in the culture that shapes human cognition and action. In a learning society institutions become learning organizations: they continually strive to learn how to learn and how to adapt and to change themselves. Institutions (be they colleges, training or community centres, industrial or financial enterprises) therefore also set preconditions for learning and innovative processes. For example, in Britain successive government have attempted to break what Finegold and Soskice (1988: 22) described as this "low skills equilibrium, in which the majority of enterprises staffed by poorly trained managers and workers produce low-quality goods and services". They argue that this " self-reinforcing network of societal and state institutions [...] interact to stifle the demand for inprovements in skills levels". Thus a change in any one institutions without corresponding shifts in the other institutions may inhibit innovation and (at best) will only produced small long term improvement. However, institutions are not always either isolated or immune: governments can intervene and seek to generate change; and people do bring with them their values and perceptions, knowledge and skills.

Learning to create meaning and to make sense

Arguably human sciences are ambiguous about social reality; and any analysis of institutions (or organizations) in no way exhausts social reality. Individuals do seek out meanings. People do cultivate awareness so that they can realize life in a meaningful way. They recognize that life is conditioned by physical and social limitations but that people can work within these limitations and eventually change them. Freedom is an activity, or in Marx's terms, *praxis*.

Mary Douglas (1982) has shown how the social pressures on individuals come in two distinct ways. She uses the term grid to denote the extent to which an individual life is circumscribed by externally imposed conditions. The grid denotes the set of rules that classify people and govern individual interactions. Thus, a "strong" or "high" grid indicate tightly prescribed scripts for individual interaction. Here people have to learn what is expected of them. At the "weak" or "low" end of the grid, the influence of rank and status fade, and relations are uncertain, ambiguous and negotiable. Here people have to learn to recognise each others needs. They learn to work together in a situation where authority and power are more equitably shared.

The group, Douglas explains, refers to the extent to which an individual's life is absorbed in and sustained by group membership. Where the group is "strong", control is tight, admission is difficult, and boundaries between members and non-members are sharpely defined. The group can exert considerable pressure on individuals to conform. However, where the group is "weak", individuals are free to negotiate and to form relationships with anyone. Here there are no clear boundaries and people interact in a variety of networks rather than only with members of an exclusive group.

Douglas' grid-group framework provides a way of associating an individual's preferred way of life with his or her preferred conditions for learning, that is, the extent to which an individual's learning may be facilitated (or constrained) either by group decisions, or by prescriptive rules. Here social facilitation, or social control, is highlighted as a form of power: indicating the extent to which individuals are helped or controlled by others, and try to help or to control others.

The two dimensions of social control, grid and group, map out five (and only five) possible positions or catagories. Individuals are faced with the five possible ways of life, which have been labelled, "hierarchy", "egalitarianism", "individualism", "fatalism", and "autonomy". The categories represent important competing ways of life or cultures in our society. Analytically these cultures can be considered separately (Thompson et al. 1990). Here again the government and other power groups will struggle to impose their preferred way of life.

Learning to create and to dissiminate knowledge

A common expectation is that industrial society must be technologically sophisticated, with sustained growth, a mobile and flexible division of labour which is capable of sharing explicit meanings and precise communications. Thus, paradoxically although it is a very highly specialized society, the major part of education and training is generic and the importance of the foundation and the formation phases is paramount. Arguably, therefore, industrial society "must be thoroughly exo-educational: [where] each individual is trained by specialists, not just by his [or her] own group, if indeed [she or] he has one" (Gellner 1983: 34). The expectation is that every individual should have an adequate knowledge and competence in foundation languages, mathematics and science.

A problem for continuing training and development is the widespread absence of adequate foundations. Presumably the challenge is whether modern society will turn *everyone* into a cleric, and ensure "that exo-education becomes the universal norm, and that no-one culturally speaking, shaves himself" (Gellner 1983: 32). Yet such a view may not be inimical to the development of diversity and individual fulfilment. Hence in one sense continuing training and development depends heavily on the quality of the foundation and the formation phases.

The Thatcherite are more radical. They assume that education and training in the UK is as outdated as the dinosour. Learning will change the culture; but only competitive pressures and free markets will infect and coerce institutions and practictioners into learning to change. Britain will only prosper when a new national frame of mind is universally adopted: it will require new questioning, the acceptance limited tenures, and a contracting public sector in education and training. Mrs. Thatcher first put when in 1979 she declared that

> the mission of this [her] governemnt is much more than the promotion of economic progress. It is to renew the spirit and the solidarity of the nation... At the heart of a new mood in the nation must be the recovery of our self-confidence and our self-respect. [Sampson, 1982, p.51]

Again governments can almost always intervene not only in the economic arena but also in the education and training systems to fashion them as best as they can in their own image.

Craft and professional learning

Much is made of reflection as the professionals' way of learning (Schon 1983). Arguably, however, as Max Weber taught, material resources and ideal interests, not ideas, have directly governed peoples' conduct. Yet frequently political paradigms, or world images, created by the ideas of intellectuals have determined the direction of action. Most politicians view problems and solutions through ideologically-tinted spectacles. They tend to look to like minded supporters and seek out solutions that appear to suit their definitions of success. Government policy making is, therefore, hardly an objective process, or a matter of evidence and interpretation. Likewise much professional practice is fashioned of the tension between traditional habits, and financial rewards and economic development. At any time, in education, training and development, it is debatable to what extent practitioners (teachers and trainers) can determine the purposes of learning and the curriculum. But the issue is not only how to learn, but more importantly, who decides?

The Thatcherite solution is to allow the "free" market to decide. But it is an employer-led and business managed market: the "new magistracy" (Professor John Stewart's term) the government appointed "place men", control hospital trusts, Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs), in Scotland Local Enterprise Companies (LECs), Urban Development Corporations, and other similar quandos. Stewart argues that these governing bodies are either stuffed with failed politicians or failed business people. Be that as it may, it is a way of colonising the outreaches of government. It is also a way diminishing local democracy and public accountability. It remains to be seen whether it is a way of increasing efficiency. The "new magistracy" has, however, altered the agenda of training and development. Managers (and to-day who is not a manager) have learnt, or are learning, the paradigms, or world views, of business people, and are using them to explain and justify their ambitions and activities.

Conclusion

The paper highlights some of the moral and political issues that face practitioners in continuing training and development. To what extent do we go along with policies and practices that we may find problematic? To what extent do we accept aims and goals that we may believe are inimical to the interests of our students? or contradict professional beliefs and established practices? and no less importantly, accept policies that may not contribute to the collective good of the whole of society.

The analysis shows, as Scruton (1980) argues, that there is indeed a battle for the soul of society; but whether practictioners can avoid engagement remains problematic. Comparative studies of the functional systems will provide deeper insights and further argument, and (in the longer term) perhaps help change assumptions and may be also help improve plans for action in an active Learning Society.

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The New Education of Adult Educators: What, Who and Why?

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In Britain, the provision of education and training for further and adult educators over the last fifty years has been as patchy and erratic as the development of adult and further education. From the early origins of adult and further education in the Mechanics Institutes and the University Extension Movement, through the establishment of Responsible Bodies (RBs) in university extramural departments and the WEA, and the development of further education (FE) college and local education authority (LEA) provision, it has been marked by incoherent and poorly supported arrangements for the training of teachers, particularly part-time teachers. Of course, there have been coordinated attempts to establish certificates, diplomas and even postgraduate qualifications in the education of adults, but these have very often depended on local enthusiasm and support, rather than a sustained national policy.

The recent changes in adult, further and higher education and current moves towards vocational qualifications may bring about a rather different picture of training and education for those teaching in further and higher education. In this paper, I explore the development of training for adult and further education teachers, consider the current position, and discuss future likely developments in the field. I also discuss new developments in the training of higher education teachers, particularly as these relate to continuing education departments. I have omitted any discussion about the training of teachers of the professions, as I am most concerned with those teaching adults liberal adult education.

It has always been difficult to define terms when it comes to talking about adult and further education, and current changes in policy mean that the old understandings will disappear over the next year or two. But of course, any discussion of training must be placed within the wider context of provision. Training has developed roughly along the customary lines of separation between vocational and non-vocational education. This line is normally drawn between vocational training and education, which was usually provided by colleges of further education as both a full-time and part-time activity, and non-vocational education, which was provided by the LEAs and the ex-RBs. In the case of LEAs, there was a great deal of overlap between vocational and non-vocational education, so that provision which was not examined was defined as nonvocational, while that which was examined was defined as vocational. This distinction can be ludicrous. For example, if one is learning French, the course may be defined as "non-vocational" if it is not examined, and "vocational" if it is, even though a student may be taking it in order to speak better French on holiday. LEAs have usually provided basic education and recreational courses such as handicrafts, physical education, art, music and drama, as well as GSCEs and A levels. University extramural and WEA provision has, until recently, been generally defined as non-vocational or liberal education.

Current training and education routes for the educators of adults

At least four training routes have existed for those in further and adult education: certificates, diplomas and postgraduate qualifications from "traditional" universities; the City and Guilds 7307 Certificate; the Advisory Council for the Supply and Training of Teachers (ACSTT) Stages I, II and III; and the Certificate in Education (Further Education). Until recently, formal training pathways for those teaching in higher education did not exist.

There are also a wide variety of specialist subject training qualifications (such as those intended for teachers of word-processing and keep-fit) which emphasise the development of subject expertise and knowledge, but I have excluded these from my discussion.

The "traditional" universities

With the exception of summer schools for "apprentice tutors" at Oxford and Cambridge before the second World War, and at Oxford between 1946 and 1968 (Elsdon, 1975), there was little training offered for teachers working for RBs. Tutors were well-qualified in their subject, and, in the case of the Universities, were mostly employed full-time. Those working for the WEA were similarly well versed in their discipline or specialist interest. In both cases, there was a belief that the liberal and educational nature of the work did not demand any particular training, but, instead, relied on the tutor's special relationship with his or her subject and class. In imitation of the rest of the university world, the tutor's own education was supposedly enough of a foundation for teaching.

Until the establishment of a full-time certificate course in Adult Education at Manchester University in 1955, and an advanced diploma in 1961, the provision of training for both full-time and part-time tutors working for RBs was sporadic and cursory, often consisting of day events at which tutors could discuss teaching. This was understandable, given the prevailing beliefs about the special nature of extramural tutors, the paucity of academic knowledge about adult education as a discipline, and the fact that there was little or no funding for training. It was only with the emergence of diplomas at other universities such as Nottingham in 1966 that both the beginnings of a body of knowledge about adult education and a more coherent form of training for full-time and part-time RB tutors became established within universities.

Many "traditional" (as opposed to "new") British Universities with departments or units of adult or continuing education have since been involved in certificate and postgraduate provision for the training and educating of people who teach adults. Many (and previously, most) of the students taking these courses worked for, and, for now, continue to work for organisations that have been responsible for the non-vocational education of adults (for example, university adult education departments, local education authority adult education centres, voluntary organisations such as the WEA, etc). SCUTREA's latest Guide to Courses lists over 20 institutions (SCUTREA, 1993) involved in such training.

Further education colleges

The City and Guilds Institute's first Technical Teacher's Certificate programme in 1953, the origins of which are fully described by Foden (1992), was set up to be taken by part-time vocational tutors on a part-time basis. This was to be the precursor for the City and Guilds 730 Teachers' Certificate in 1973, later to be modified as the Further and Adult Teachers' Certificate 7307, which became the biggest training route for FE teachers. The course was originally offered to those involved with vocational education for adults (for example, further education teachers, private trainers and health service teachers), but, more recently, has become popular amongst those teaching non-vocational education. Some 7,000 further and adult education teachers are now certificated annually (Allison, 1991).

Local Education Authorities

Through LEA provision, the number of students participating in adult education (and the number of part-time tutors) increased dramatically in the 1950s and early 1960s. By the early 1960s, the National Institute of Adult Education believed that there were some 60,000 part-time tutors, supported by a cohort of new full-time workers such as principals, organisers and advisers for adult education (Elsdon 1975: 10).

The third possible route for teachers of adults came about as the result of recommendations from three reports of the Advisory Council for the Supply and Training of Teachers (ACSTT) between 1975 and 1978. In those reports, the Council addressed the training of full-time teachers in further education colleges, as well as part-time teachers of adults and those involved in the management of post-school education services. Although the second report did not receive the governmental recognition given to the first, it "had a profound influnce on the development of systematic training for teachers of adults, especially those in local authority employ" (Daines and Graham, 1991, 145).

As a result, a three-stage scheme emerged from this second report (ACSTT, 1978), where the Council proposed that vocational and non-vocational teachers be trained together, and suggested that training for part-time staff was as important as that for full-time staff. All tutors were expected to take part in a very brief initial training before they started teaching. This was to be supported with the new three stage system where Stage 1 gave a brief introduction to teaching skills, Stage 2 covered these skills in more detail, and Stage 3 (which was mainly intended for those teaching full-time) extended these skills. A comprehensive survey, carried out in 1981 showed that over 140 Stage 1 courses had been mounted, under 30 Stage 2 courses and only one Stage 3 course (Graham et el, 1982).

The same pattern appears to have continued, so that, yntil recently, Stage I schemes received strong LEA support and attracted some 16,000 adult educators (Daines and Graham, 1991). Support for Stages II and III was less widespread, and, latterly, the scheme has been overtaken by City and Guilds 7307, which covers the same ground as Stages I and II.

Polytechnics and training colleges

The most systematic attempts to train teachers of further education began in the 1940s when three institutions for training full-time technical teachers were established (Bolton Teachers College, London North Western Polytechnic (later Garnett College at New Cross) and Huddersfield), followed in 1961 by another college at Wolverhampton. These colleges were open to people over the age of 25 who already had trade or specialist skills, or who were graduates wishing to teach in technical colleges.

This led to the development of the Certificate in Education (FE). Although initially provided by the four founding institutions for full-time further education teachers, it is now offered by some 60 centres in England and Wales on both a full-time and a half-time basis, and as many as half of the participants are adult educators (Sims, 1991). The courses, which were validated by the CNAA until its demise, are usually run through a higher education institution, and have been considered the equivalent of Stage III described above

Current structural influences

As I said earlier, the training of educators depends on the nature of provision. In the past three years, provision for adults within FE colleges, LEAs, RBs and within universities has changed dramatically. As a result of changes in the structure and funding of further and higher education, the concept of non-vocational adult education as it was provided by the LEAs and RBs, is fast becoming a memory. Further and higher education institutions are being brought closer together through a number of factors explored below and, as a result, the training of both full and part-time teachers in these sectors is merging, despite very different traditions and pedagogic practices.

There is little space for a full account of all the factors leading up to these changes, but there are some very important consequences for training.

Colleges and LEAs

First of all, the relationship between FE colleges and LEAs (and the resulting arrangements for both vocational and non-vocational further and adult education) has been severed. Following the Further and Higher Education Act in 1992, FE colleges are no longer under LEA control. Instead, they are, like universities, funded by a separate funding agency, the Further Education Funding Council, (FEFC) which is instructed by parliament as to which activities it may fund. Within the Schedule definitions, colleges will not receive funding for nonvocational adult education, although many will be taking on such staff from the LEAs (see below).

Those staff teaching non-vocational adult education within what was the LEA provision are unlikely to continue to be funded to teach their courses because the LEAs are unlikely to continue to fund this area of work to anything like the same degree as they did, given their increasingly squeezed budgets. Furthermore, now that many activities which were carried out jointly by the LEAs and colleges and funded through the LEAs no longer exist, there is no adequate support framework of principals and organisers to manage adult education provision and delivery. In the least generous LEAs, part-time adult education tutors will either work privately (and pay for the use of a centre or school), or run "economic" classes (that is, classes that are financed by students fees) or they will be drawn into some form of vocational work (in other words, work that is certificated).

Within Leeds, which is not an unusual authority, the individuals who were fulltime support staff in adult education, have been taken on by the colleges. However, they have been expected to become full-time teachers and trainers within colleges (rather than organisers) because their skills as organisers and community development workers are no longer required. They will therefore be trained alongside FE staff and many are already undertaking assessor awards in order to be able to assess national vocational qualifications (NVQs).

The implications of the shifts in funding for the training of teaching staff are not yet clear but are likely to make themselves felt in several ways. Until recently, the LEAs provided money for training out of GEST (Grants for Education Supply and Training). However, this has ceased now that the colleges are out of LEA control, and colleges will have to take individual decisions about the training of their own staff. It seems unlikely that much will be spent on this, unless the FEFC makes a clear decision about allocating money for training staff. Nevertheless, many colleges are now providing their own City and Guilds 730 both for full-time and part-time staff working for the college itself, and for individuals working for other organisations such as private training agencies and commercial companies. Such courses have proved very popular over the last few years and Foden (1992) predicts that over 10,000 people a year will take the courses.

Continuing education in the universities

Following a recent review by the the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFC(E)), liberal adult education is unlikely to survive in its current form. Funding will be linked to award-bearing courses for the most part, so that extramural teaching will have to be assessed. The introduction of assessment will pose new problems for the extramural teacher dealing with audiences who have little or no background in the academic subject they are studying, and it seems likely that most of the work that has been associated with liberal adult education will either disappear or will cost students much more because it will have to finance itself. This pattern echoes the disintegration of non-vocational education in the LEA, and it seems likely that there will be a new breed of parttime tutor in continuing education departments. Instead of teaching a selfdesigned, non-examined syllabus that is negotiated with students, tutors will be involved in teaching assessed courses which offer students credits within higher education, or enable students to enter higher education (for example, Access courses). Thus, the new extramural tutor is likely to be much more heavily involved in syllabus development for a university committee, setting and marking of assessments, examination, external assessment, tutorials and evaluation. They will be engaged in tasks which are very similar to those of teachers in other university departments and are likely to need the same sorts of training as those individuals.

Current teacher training concerns

Within the context of these structural changes, a number of other developments in the provision of further and higher education is likely to change the training and education needs of those working with adults.

Competence and the new vocationalism

A revolution has taken place within the last year or two within further education. During the latter half of the 1980s, the Tory governments insisted on the setting up of competence-based standards for most occupations. These standards were developed by over 150 lead bodies covering most occupational areas in exercises that were supposed to map occupations. The idea behind such developments was that training should focus on outcomes or competences and therefore students would aim to provide evidence of their competence in a number of clearly defined vocational tasks, rather than following a course. The NVQ initiative has recently been followed by the introduction of general national vocational qualifications (GNVQs).

One of the effects of this movement towards outcomes is that even those courses which are not associated with vocational training have been turned into competence-based training. For example, many colleges now offer students the opportunity to work for qualifications in voluntary work with competences in the management of meetings or minute taking for example (Tiernan, 1992) or in parenting. Such 'vocationalising' of every activity seems to be in direct opposition to the liberal aims of those teaching non-vocational education, but some of the most enthusiastic proponents for the approach are those working in basic education.

Those working in colleges face the challenge of competence-based training both as teachers and as students. First of all, they need to be able to assess competence, and, inevitably, a new qualification has been developed to recognise their competence at doing this. This new assessors' award was developed by the Training and Lead Body (TDLB) and staff in many colleges have been required to collect evidence to demonstrate their competence at assessing competence, in order to gain the award. Furthermore, as Paul Armstrong points out, '...teaching to be competent is no longer their [the teacher's] prime role. The onus is on the "clients" to learn to be competent; staff become managers of learning, providers of support and guidance, or assessors of competence' (1992, 16).

As part of the procedure of assessing competence, individual students are given recognition for prior learning if it can be assessed, in order to count as much of their previous experience as possible. Therefore, instead of being employed to teach a course, tutors are increasingly used as assessors of competence (both of prior learning and work on the job). As the idea of a course disappears and is overtaken with the notion that teaching is the delivery of flexible and open learning "packages" to very diverse student bodies, so the requirements of a teacher have become those of an assessor.

Secondly, it has been argued that it ought to be possible to measure the competence of teachers, and therefore to develop competence-based teaching qualifications. Over the last two years, City and Guilds have piloted the 7305, which is a competence-based 7307, and which aims to specify the elements of competence that are required of a teacher. The old 7307 will be phased out over the next few years, and the new 7305 (which incorporates the TDLB assessors' award) will take its place.

This move towards competence has also been proposed for the Cert Ed (FE) by some higher education institutions and the Further Education Council (FEU). Sims (1991) argues that there are advantages of such a scheme for teachers because those competences which an individual already possesses can be recognised and valued. Furthermore, he claims that once the competences are made explicit, 'the process of determining staff development needs becomes deliberate, systematic and open' (p.143).

Of course, as soon as an attempt is made to analyse the functional competences involved in teaching and training, one begins to redefine the very nature of what it means to be a teacher. The FEU's most recent consultation (1992) on a possible structure for the training of FE staff links qualifications to the national framework, and, in effect, tries to outline a possible structure for the employment of FE staff. The outline proposes that staff would be able to take an initial qualification as an assessor at Level 3, a lecturer's qualification at Level 4, a staff development provider award at the same level, or a manager's qualification at Level 5. This implies that part-time staff would be employed mainly as assessors, while full-time staff would follow a pathway of lecturer and/or staff development provider.

There are many problems with the consultation document, both in terms of its philosophy and the detail of its proposed competences. The arguments against competence-based education and training (CBET) have been made forcefully elsewhere, but are still worth repeating in this context. Apart from the general problems of the specification of competence when one is trying to describe human activity (Ashworth and Saxton, 1990), and the difficulties of assessing individuals when human activity may well depend on group action (Zukas, 1992), the central problem lies in the definition of teaching as the provision of learning opportunities, resources and support. As Armstrong (1992) points out, there are at least two dimensions missing from such a model of teaching: personal effectiveness and knowledge. None of the personal qualities which we would recognise as being important in teaching, such as self presentation, sensitivity to others, appropriate decision making and so on are mentioned in the draft proposals. The whole problem of underpinning knowledge in the assessment of competence has provoked a separate debate, and knowledge is usually assumed to be implicitly assessed in the demonstration of competent performance. Although there has been some explicit discussion of the "problem" of underlying knowledge at higher NVQ levels (for example, Mitchell, 1993), the normal omission of any mention of critical reflection and change seems to imply that such knowledge and reflection is secondary to the techniques of assessment.

Without an extensive discussion of some of the difficulties of such an approach which has tended to focus on the training activity itself and not an overall "learning programme", it should be clear from my description of the career map that it seems unlikely that FE colleges will want their part-time staff to be trained to teach, as teaching was previously envisaged. Instead, they will want them to be assessors who are able to take individuals through the business of building up portfolios of evidence of competence. Within this new arrangement, it seems likely that they will seek to train their own staff (both full and part-time) to the levels that management deem appropriate for each individual appointment. Furthermore, given new arrangements for the negotiations of pay and contracts, it is probable that there will be an increasing differentiation between full-time and part-time staff, with the former managing the latter to a much greater extent than previously. It also seems likely that only full-time staff will have access to the higher levels of training, as the colleges will only be willing to pay for them.

Thus, I believe that the Cert Ed (FE) is unlikely to continue in its present form, unless it can incorporate the new career structures which are likely to emerge in FE (even if they are not the ones outlined in the FEU paper). The Cert Ed (FE) is already in difficulty because its higher education providers cannot offer awards promoted by other bodies such as TDLB. This has arisen because of the conditions of the mandatory award for the Cert Ed which guarantees that students' fees are paid direct to the providing HE institution. The mandatory award can only be given if the whole of the course is at an HE level, and since City and Guilds and TDLB are not considered to be at an HE level, they cannot be offered as part of the course. Therefore, colleges who wish their staff to have NVQs in FE teaching are likely to have to provide those themselves (as in the case of the TDLB award). Furthermore, if colleges will be paying directly for some part of the training of their staff such as cover for day release, they are likely to want to have control over this training and to do it as cheaply as possible.

A changing higher education system

Universities have never expected their academic staff to be trained in teaching, but have assumed that they are able to teach if they have a good academic background. Within the last couple of years, this belief appears to have shifted, partly because of new links being made between the quality of teaching and funding, and partly because university teaching has become a much less leisurely business. Class sizes have increased, students from non-traditional backgrounds are coming into university and staff have much less time to prepare for teaching as their teaching loads have increased.

The modularisation of degrees which is taking place at the moment in most universities is also likely to bring about some of the most challenging changes for teachers, and may well require skills that were previously not really demanded within higher education. If students do not have a guaranteed common preparation for modules at the second and third levels, because they will not have taken a common first year, this could result in a very different way of teaching for academic staff. Furthermore, with the introduction of open learning to overcome some of the problems of large groups starting at different academic places, it seems likely that staff will have to become very familiar with new technologies of teaching.

A further change in higher education teaching is likely to emerge through a new focus on learning outcomes. . The Enterprise in Higher Education campaign, mounted by the Department of Employment to encourage academics to focus on learning outcomes and the needs of employers rather than more traditional liberal academic concerns, is likely to influence the ways in which the quality of higher education will be assessed. An attempt to define learning outcomes in higher education has already been made (Otter, 1993). Such a shift in the focus of teaching would demand a rethinking of what it means to be a lecturer in higher education, with the same kinds of issues arising as those in FE.

Partly as a result of these changes, and partly as a result of pressures put on universities by the funding and quality councils, many institutions have introduced or are about to introduce new training courses for academic staff. For some time, staff development has been made widely available for staff, but such courses tend to be short and to focus on particular issues such as postgraduate supervision or grant applications. The new initiatives are more concerned with a teacher training course for new academics, and are most likely to take place in-service. In my own university, the first Certificate in Teaching and Learning for new academics is to be launched this year, after much discussion and ambivalence from some quarters. Another indicator of these newly developed interests is a new magazine (The New Academic) which was launched last year and claims to be "the magazine of teaching and learning in higher education".

It appears, as usual, that the funding for such encouraging developments is unlikely to come from the funding councils. Instead, universities will decide for themselves how much they spend on staff training and development, and how many people they can afford to train. It seems unlikely that staff who have been in post for some time will receive any substantial training, although new staff are likely to be required to attend such courses.

While these moves are very encouraging, and may indeed offer opportunities for those offering diplomas in adult education to rise from the ashes as providers of higher education teacher certificates (and, at present, there seem to be few in a better position to do so), they pose problems for continuing education departments. It is improbable that universities will pay for the teacher training of part-time staff, and it also seems unlikely that staff teaching for a few hours a week will want to take a substantial training course. Unless the certificates are linked to some confederation of universities (and this has happened in some cases), it is possible that certificates from different universities will have very different lengths and content and will have no general currency across institutions.

At the same time, despite my reservations about competence-based schemes, it would appear to be sensible for institutions offering on-the-job training to base some of the tasks of teaching on competences that have been outlined elsewhere (for example, the City and Guilds 7305). If this were the case, there is an argument for bringing together the training of teachers in both further and higher education. At the upper levels of further education, staff may be working on franchised university courses (although this is less likely to be a very common occurrence than it was before the setting up of the FEFC which is concerned to ensure that FE remains distinct from HE), while at the lower levels of higher education, staff may be engaged in developing and providing open learning courses, similar to those in FE.

Likely developments in further and adult education teacher training

It seems to me that there are two possible developments for FE teacher training which are not mutually exclusive. It is possible that universities will argue that they should be allowed to award NVQs. In order to do this, they would have to work through one of the existing NVQ awarding bodies (for example, City and Guilds) or set up their own awarding body. In my view, the latter is the more probable of these two unlikely options since the universities are unlikely to be willing to offer awards that are accredited by the current NVQ bodies unless there is a fairly dramatic change in the values of those universities, and the basis of the mandatory award. On the other hand, perhaps some colleges will see themselves as centres of training for other colleges, taking over the current role of the Cert Ed providers. Again, it seems unlikely that all colleges will become involved in training at all levels because many will not be big enough to undertake this work. Furthermore, many institutions value the opportunity of staff exchanging ideas with others from different institutions and would be loathe to lose this aspect of the training.

A separate possibility exists, and that is the development of a new (probably competence-based) qualification for both further and higher education teachers. However, I suspect that this is unlikely to happen, given the separate funding arrangements. What concerns me most is that the current and future developments, whatever form and shape they take, will concentrate on a view of education that is narrow and limiting, defining teaching as the provision of learning opportunities rather than a more dynamic and interactive process, and ignoring a wider understanding of what it means to be a teacher. This movement is also taking place within the training of teachers in primary and secondary schools, and is perhaps most sharply evident in the current proposals for the training of nursery teachers.

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